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INTRODUCTION TO
Cataloging and the
Classification of Books

BY
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Second Edition

American Library Association

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TO
CATALOGERS
In Memory of
KATHARINE L. SHARP

Preface

THE DEVELOPMENT of library cataloging has been both full and rapid in the years that have intervened since the publication of the first edition of this book in 1930.* An attempt has been made in this new edition to bring information up to date and to call attention to new services in the field, especially those offered by the Library of Congress. Changed practices and increased interest in the administrative side of cataloging are two of the reasons that have made it necessary to revise the text at many points.

In keeping with the spirit of the times, some consideration has been given to possible economies in cataloging, but student, cataloger, and administrator must be warned that economies need to be studied very carefully before they are adopted in an individual library.

Purpose.—This book is not a manual of practice, although naturally some definite rulings are stated. It is, as the title states, an *Introduction* to the subject and it attempts to orient the student of library science in the problems presented by books, as well as in the means used to make them of service to readers. While this book was written primarily for students of library science, the first edition has also been used by the following groups: (1) instructors in library schools; (2) members of the staff of catalog departments; (3) new assistants who wished to become proficient in cataloging and classification procedures; (4) executives, when organization problems were at stake; and (5) library trustees who were unfamiliar with the two subjects treated.

Despite these various purposes the book may have served, it is intended for students who are beginning to study library science. It is written with the realization that the course in cataloging and classification is only one unit in a full curriculum and that, while such a course may lead to specialization, it cannot be expected that all students will choose to become catalogers. An attempt has been made to tell what the catalog is, where it leads, and what service it can give; and therefore what it means to catalog and classify books. By covering principles, the text seeks to reach not only those who will become catalogers, but also those who may be executives or assistants in any part of the library staff. Thus the interpreters as well as the makers of the catalog have been kept constantly in mind.

Scope.—This is an explanatory text based on present-day library

* Prepared as one of the Library Curriculum Studies under the direction of Dr. W. W. Charters.

practice. No attempt has been made to give the history of cataloging and classification or to cover the cataloging of special collections (such as documents, maps, pictures, rare books, and manuscripts), but the underlying principles herein expressed may guide one in dealing with such material. The discussion is not limited to problems in a single type of library, but reference is made to public, university, and special libraries as these types need emphasis. When small libraries require a different treatment from that described, this is usually stated.

The choice of matter to go into the book has been very carefully considered from the pedagogical point of view. Subjects have been introduced sometimes with only a suggestion as to their development, thus inviting the student to inquire further into the matter. This should be especially useful to the advanced student, for advanced studies must grow out of basic courses. Some excerpts included in the book may seem unnecessarily long when they have been taken from reference books that are easily accessible, but these have been included so that this text may be used for home study. One or two chapters have no very decided teaching value, but it seemed best to include them for the use of students beginning their work in the field.

The interest of the student is more easily sustained if the emphasis of the course is placed on books and their potential readers, and if the principles of cataloging and classification precede the technique. Such a presentation will show that cataloging and classification are two of the fundamental branches of library science. From the stress placed upon principles in this book, the student learns, too, that he is preparing for a professional, not a clerical position.

Laboratory practice.—The study of these branches involves problems requiring performance of a definite duty as well as the creation of a definite thing. The student must, therefore, spend a carefully proportioned part of his time in laboratory practice where he catalogs and classifies books. Such laboratory practice makes clear the objective of the course, "to fit for useful employment," but should not be carried beyond the point of being a learning medium. In the laboratory the student has an opportunity to show his desire and aptitude to cooperate, to work with consideration for others, to subordinate himself to the accomplishment of his task, to do accurate and painstaking work, and to acquire that skill in execution which will make him a quick and discriminating assistant.

This book attempts to orient the student for his approach to this practice work. If this method of orientation is followed, the instructor will give some time to the study of books and their make-up, catalogs and their use, and subjects and their ramifications, before beginning the actual making of catalog cards. During this time the laboratory

practice will consist in handling types of books so that the student may become familiar with them.

Code recommended.—The A.L.A. *Catalog rules*¹ is the code recommended as a laboratory manual. While rules for catalog entries are rarely repeated in this text, the value and necessity of following definite directions are made apparent. Rules for entry have been officially accepted and adopted by libraries as the result of long discussion and study.

A second edition of *Catalog rules* is in course of preparation. It should be more in line with Library of Congress practice than was the first. Changed rulings in the second edition of the Catalog Code should have little effect on this text, since it does not discuss rules in detail. In any case, the author believes it wise for library schools to relax the rigor of the detailed method of studying rules alone, and to substitute a broader and perhaps more interesting procedure.

Card form.—Library of Congress cards are emphasized. The unit card form, which is recommended in this book, is preferred in all but exceptional cases, since it is recognized as most economical and most satisfying.

Methods of presentation.—This text only suggests methods of study. Anyone is free to use the chapters as best judgment dictates. It has been written with a conviction that more work can be covered, more interest can be aroused, more of value given, and better catalogers and more discerning executives produced, if the course in cataloging and classification is built around the whole book and its subject as expressed in classification and in the card catalog. The author therefore advocates the study of classification and cataloging in the same course. The two subjects can not, or should not, be entirely divorced in actual practice in a library, and even if so divided the cataloger should know the relation between the two processes, and the classifier should understand how books are cataloged. There is a decided gain both to the student and to the library school if one catalogs and classifies at the same time, as more work can be accomplished in the same length of time.²

These suggestions, representing the feeling of catalogers already in the field, have resulted in the shaping of this text so as to prepare students, in so far as possible, for practical work under existing conditions. Sufficient time should be devoted to each chapter to master the detail and to allow for the examination of illustrative material.

¹ *Catalog rules, author and title entries*, compiled by committees of the American Library Association and the (British) Library Association (American ed.; Chicago: A.L.A., 1908), xvi, 88p.

² Instructors will find an account of the author's method of instruction in an article entitled "Teaching of cataloging and classification," A.L.A. *Bulletin*, XXXI (May 1937), 285-90.

Plan.—The introductory chapter gives some conception of what it means to interpret books for library use. This is followed by an analysis of the make-up of a book and the value its different parts may have for the reader (Chapter II). Books are then examined in groups with a view to finding some common basis for their classification and shelf arrangement (Chapter III), a study which leads naturally to a discussion of definite schedules of classification (Chapters IV and V) and of the records necessary to maintain a specific scheme of classification and to furnish symbols for shelving books (Chapter VI). Having shelved the books by subject, the next step is to catalog them so that they can be found quickly. This means a discussion of the catalog: its function, form, type and technique (Chapters VII-XII). With these needs settled, we now turn to a study of duties as actually carried out in practice (Chapters XIII and XIV), followed by a consideration of Library of Congress and Wilson printed cards (Chapters XV and XVI). The next consideration is how best to organize and administer a department which must care for the work as herein surveyed, together with a consideration of supplies and equipment (Chapters XVII and XVIII).

From this outline it is apparent that the book follows the progressive mode of treatment. The method of teaching used by the instructor will, of course, determine the way in which the book can be made to yield the greatest service. Some chapters will be most effective if read before the instructor begins a discussion of the topic to be studied, while others will be more helpful if read to summarize a discussion. The chapters are correlated to make a whole; therefore no one chapter should be read independently of others by those unfamiliar with the subjects of cataloging and classification.

Practical questions.—Following each chapter is a list of questions by which the student may test his knowledge of what he has just read through a number of practical applications. These questions should provoke discussion and add interest to the subject.

References.—References are given at the end of most chapters. They have been selected to meet the special needs of students. Readings should come within the range of the student's knowledge of the subject, for which reason advanced, old, or controversial items have generally been omitted. In some cases, when it was necessary to abridge a chapter, the references have been made more complete so that the instructor may have greater range from which to choose in making assignments for further study. References have been revised and brought up to date for the second edition.

New editions of a number of works included in the references will be published in the near future. Among them is the third edition of Akers' *Simple library cataloging*. The student, therefore, may need to adapt some

of the references as later editions of the titles in question become available to him.

Model cards.—Sets of model cards are still available from the Card Division of the Library of Congress but the list of them, which was given in the Appendix to the first edition, has not been repeated. Columbia Library School has issued a pamphlet entitled *Sample catalog cards*³ which the student may find very helpful in providing forms for different kinds of entry.

Acknowledgments.—Acknowledgment for valuable information is due, and is here gratefully made, to the libraries which have contributed generously to the data collected for this text, to my co-workers who helped in shaping this book, and to those who generously furnished constructive criticism.

The author wishes to pay tribute, also, to those who have been responsible for the *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*. These excellent volumes have done much to stimulate specialization in the two fields. They have enriched our literature and set up standards for others to follow.

MARGARET MANN

Ann Arbor, Michigan

October 24, 1942

³ Columbia University. School of Library Service. *Sample catalog cards for use in connection with syllabi for Library service 201 and 206*. (N. Y.: Columbia Univ. pr., 1937), 30 l.

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I

The Cataloger as an Interpreter of Books

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| I. The Study of Books | 1. Book technique |
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| 1. The purpose of cataloging | 3. Cataloging technique |
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To those who have had their interest in library science quickened by a love of books, and to those who have a desire to know books better and make them known to others, there is no more satisfying work than the handling of books as they come into a library. Here one turns his attention, not to gratifying his own hunger for literature, but to the far broader task of studying, recording and interpreting books so that they may reach the thousands of readers who are in search of reading matter of various kinds and for various purposes.

A large collection of books brought together for public use raises many questions for the cataloger who must organize it before it becomes usable. He is confronted by books in quantity, for libraries are distributors of many books and of much information. The cataloger does not have the time or opportunity to read according to his preference but must dip into volume after volume, passing from one author to another and from one subject to another, making contacts with all minds of the world's history and entering into the society of mental superiors and inferiors. Catalogers find their work a realm as large as the universe. For them

the poets sing, the philosophers discourse, the historians unfold the wonderful march of life, and the searchers of nature reveal the secrets and mysteries of creation. . . . The only true equalizers in the world are books; the only treasure-house open to all comers is a library; the only wealth which will not decay is knowledge . . . to live in this equality, to share in these treasures, to possess this wealth, and to secure this jewel may be the happy lot of every one.¹

¹ J. A. Langford, *The praise of books as said and sung by English authors* (London: Cassell, [1880]), p.10-14. Quoted in Temple Scott's *The friendship of books* (N. Y.: Macmillan, 1911), p.155.

I. The Study of Books

It is the happy lot of the cataloger not only to dwell in this world of books, but to study and examine them so that the readers who frequent libraries may have the benefit of the wisdom, intelligence, and literary talent of those whose works are on the library shelves. This analysis demands a broad vision, a sympathetic outlook, and a determination to read perseveringly, as well as a certain amount of sustained effort and expenditure of brain tissue. Those who catalog may truly be called the "servants of the servants of literature," for it is their task to examine, cull, arrange and record the works of the writers of all generations.

The cataloger must act as a medium between writer and reader, endeavoring to estimate justly the intention of the one and the need of the other. He must study books comparatively to detect differences in style and treatment in order to know what value they may have for various types of readers. He must realize that the books intrusted to his care must be examined and made ready for use in the same way that any other commodity is analyzed and studied, so that it may serve its purpose. To attain this end, the cataloger must understand people, must envisage the needs of the reader, and endeavor in every way to make the location of books a simple and natural procedure. He should adopt a neutral stand between the reader and his books, giving emphasis to what the author intended to describe rather than to his own views. He must realize that the methods and terms used to express subjects, as well as the other technicalities involved, must be suited to the type of reader for whom the book was written. He must be aware that what will please the advanced student will be unintelligible to the average man; what will furnish information to the uninitiated will be useless to the specialist; what will interest and stimulate one reader will find little favor with another; what is written for the adult cannot be understood by the child, and conversely, what is prepared for the child is too elementary for the adult. It is this understanding of the needs of groups of readers which must go into the successful study of books as they are being prepared for the use of a miscellaneous clientele. There are those who will demand special translations, revised editions, works with illustrations, compilations containing particular essays or stories, authors whose names they know but vaguely, subjects which admit of various interpretations, histories of places difficult to locate, and a thousand things which only a thinking public can demand.

Books are valuable because they contribute to a certain subject or subjects; because they have been written by a certain person, or group of persons; because the titles make an appeal; because they have been compiled or edited by persons of authority; because they have been recommended for a definite purpose; because some one chapter contains the

only thing on the subject in print; or because a new edition of an old book has brought to light new information. Books in a library are tools collected for public use. They are usually chosen to serve the specific needs of a definite group of people. This group may be the inhabitants of a limited community, a village, town or city; or it may be a student body, as in colleges and universities. Again, the library may aim at serving a group of specialists by building a collection restricted to one subject, as art, engineering, or medicine. Books for any one of these are selected to make a well-rounded collection by which the library may furnish information, recreation, and stimulation according to the needs of the group it is designed to serve.

The applications to which books are put may vary as between one type of library and another. Accordingly, in a special library a book may be cataloged and classified from a specialized point of view to suit the needs of the kind of reader using the library. Thus, a medical library may find one use for a book, while an engineering library may wish to use the same book for quite a different purpose. It is surprising to find how many interpretations may be given to one and the same treatise. For example: to a medical library the value of books on occupational diseases lies in the information they give about the cause and treatment of a disease; in the technological library these books may be used to study the effect a certain product may have on health; for the insurance library they contribute to the question of risks; in the legislative or municipal reference library they may provide an aspect of the labor question; to the financial library they give information about investing in a business where a certain risk exists; while in the public or university library they may be used by readers seeking the subject from one or all of these viewpoints.

II. The Purpose and Scope of Cataloging

1. **The purpose of cataloging.**—To catalog is not merely to copy title pages. Since library books are acquired for definite purposes, the cataloger must not only record the names of authors and the titles of their books, but he must also draw attention to the purpose of these publications, their contents and their relation to other works. Accordingly, he will bring together those books which treat the same subject and arrange the whole collection so that the books may be used comparatively. All the volumes treating of art will be brought together on the shelves, while those on astronomy, chemistry, drama, education, history, music, physics, religion and sociology will be found in their separate groups.

The reader interested in seeing what books the library has in the field of education, for example, will not want to go all over the library collecting these books. The classifier must so assemble this information before the request comes that the user of the collection can get his material quickly

and effectively. Within each large field, the classifier will arrange the books so carefully that the searcher may be led from one topic to another. Thus the reader, beginning his search with general books on education, may expect to find this subject covered by comparatively few works; but as he proceeds, he is led on step by step through all the ramifications of the subject, until he has covered the details of each branch of his theme. He finds books on teaching methods, school organization, curriculum making, school discipline, etc., all of which help to map out for him the possibilities of his field of work.

The purpose of cataloging is, therefore, to put order into a collection of books so that the volumes may be located and used for reference and circulation. The classifier makes it possible for the books to be arranged in an orderly manner on the shelves. The cataloger must supplement that work by listing books in the catalog under their author, title, or subjects to provide additional lines of approach for readers and staff members alike.

2. **Problems of cataloging.**—Since every book which comes into a library must be examined and studied before it can be placed on the shelves with other books of like kind, the cataloger encounters many problems. The theme of many a book is elusive, and many a subject is baffling. Sometimes a title appears to be perfectly new; the title page may even bear a recent date; yet upon examination the book will be found to be merely a new edition of a work already in the collection.

Again, the cataloger soon learns that the title is not always a guide in determining the real subject of a book. This is true even when the words in the title do not seem ambiguous. Such a simple title as *Railroads* would seem to present no very serious consideration, but the cataloger knows that he must immediately put the questions: Does this book treat of the subject of railroads in general; is only the economic side emphasized; or does it cover merely the construction of railroads? If the point of view is not recognized by the classifier, the man who is studying railroad engineering may miss a book covering his field because it is incorrectly classified with the books on the economics of railroads.

When a book called *Simplified school accounting* comes over the cataloger's desk, he must decide whether it is best to put such a book with others on accounting or to let it take its place with books on school organization and management. The volume, *Bad debts; a drama in one act*, by Margaret Cassie Searle is to be placed with other dramas, but before this can be done the cataloger must know the nationality of the writer, since a library usually plans to arrange works of *belles-lettres* by the nationality of the author. Next is a translation of Jeffery Farnol's *The broad highway* into Polish (*Na szerokiej drodze*). Will this stand with books in the Polish language or with the English edition of the same work? It is this careful grouping of books which makes it possible for

much of the work with readers, and for readers, to be carried on effectively, and it is the classifier who determines the relative location of books on the shelves.


Unless books are correctly classified they are not ready for use. A new branch library, for example, cannot function unless there are books on its shelves marked and ready for circulation; nor can the reference librarian answer as quickly the demands which come to his desk if he cannot go directly to the shelves and find in one place books of like kind. He must be able to pick out one book after another and use these comparatively. The physical make-up of a book is such that even though the text treats of two or more subjects the book itself can stand only in one subject group on the shelves. A book on travel in France and Switzerland can be shelved with other books treating of France, but it cannot at the same time be shelved with those on Switzerland. A key to the shelves must be provided which will list this book not only under France but also under Switzerland and under the name of its author as well. This key to the books is the card catalog. It is made up of entries so arranged that author headings, titles, and subjects, and the books to which they refer may be located quickly and easily. The catalog functions whether the books are on the shelves or in circulation, and it is to this record that one must go to find what authors and subjects are represented by the books in the library, as well as to find bibliographical details such as publisher, date of publication, illustrations and other descriptive items.

The department of the library where the catalog is compiled may be likened to a laboratory in which the scientist analyzes his minerals. As the assayer separates the precious metal from its alloys, preserving the choice bits which are buried in each piece of ore, so the cataloger analyzes each book, not alone to discover its major subject, but to find hidden bits of information which may be buried between its covers. Not only subjects but names of authors as well are ferreted out. Authors furnish many entanglements which the cataloger must unravel before he can give the reader a correct listing of all the books that crowd the library shelves. Some authors are loath to divulge their names; others cover their identity by an assumed name; while some use names so brief that it is difficult to prove their identity.

It would seem to be a very simple matter to make an alphabetical list of authors and their books; in most cases the name of the author is on the title page and the title is clearly set forth. But there are many complications when one begins to collect proper names. For one thing, every name must be correctly designated. If, for example, ten different men by the name of John Smith have written books, each should be linked with the correct book. John Smith, who was born in 1880, has written the book of mathematics, and John Smith, the scientist, has written the one on astron-

omy, and so on. Each John Smith should be given a distinguishing mark to place him correctly for the reader and bring all his works together in the catalog. The same difficulty is found with persons who have changed their names. On one title page we find George A. Birmingham and we enter the book under Birmingham; in a few weeks we find another book written by the same author, but the title page bears the name J. O. Hannay. The two books should be grouped together, because we find on investigation that Birmingham is only an assumed name sometimes used by J. O. Hannay.

It is a stimulating study to trace the elusive author who uses any name which fancy dictates. Occasionally an author assumes a double personality, as did William Sharp. Here was a man who wrote a certain type of book under his real name and quite a different type under the pseudonym Fiona Macleod. The identity of the assumed name never became known during the lifetime of the author, so well was it guarded by his publishers. Some writers have been known to use as many as twenty or more pseudonyms, but if the cataloger follows all of them, the works of one writer will be scattered in twenty or more places in the catalog. Rather than do this the cataloger should choose one name, preferably the real one, and make a reference from each of the others. These references make it possible for the reader who may have remembered one of the pseudonyms, or who may have found one from another catalog or bibliography, to be directed to the name chosen. This system of cross references plays an important part in any catalog and will be treated in more detail as this text advances.

All the authors who collaborate in the writing of a book should be listed in the catalog if they are not too numerous; authors of anonymous books should be identified if possible; publications of societies should be listed under the true name of the society; and government publications should be registered so as to show the locality from which they come and the department, bureau, or office from which they emanate. Even many of the small public libraries now have the problem of classifying and cataloging books in little known languages for groups of foreign readers who have settled in their community. Proper names of these foreign writers introduce problems of spelling, correct entry, and  and some, such as Greek, Hebrew, and Russian, require transiteration.

Perhaps what has been said about preparing books in a library has led the student to ask: How are libraries able to cull this mass of printed information and give it back to the present generation so that they can use it, transform it, and add to it?

3. The scope of cataloging.—The task is indeed colossal if the collection of books is large. Nor can its difficulties be measured by the size of the accumulation. Even the small collection may be made up of very difficult books, especially in libraries limited to one special field such as medi-

cine. While in general the task becomes more complex as the collection increases, it is not always the number of pieces which makes the task overwhelming; it is rather the ever present fact that inside the covers of each book there is a condensation of *thought* which the cataloger must grasp and disclose so that the user of the books will find what he is seeking.

The extent of the field often seems enormous, and perhaps no one has summed it up as tersely as Agnes Repplier, who says:

With every century that rolls over the world there is an incalculable increase of knowledge. It ranges backward and forward, from the latest deciphering of an Assyrian tablet to the latest settling of a Balkan boundary line; from a disconcerting fossil dug out of its prehistoric mud to a new explosive warranted to destroy a continent. Obviously an educated man, even a very highly educated man, must be content in the main with a modest and wise ignorance. Intelligence, energy, opportunity—these things are doled out to him in niggardly fashion, and with his beggar's equipment he confronts the vastness of time and space, the years the world has run, the forces which have sped her on her way and the hoarded thinking of humanity.²

Librarians are able to extract some of the "hoarded thinking of humanity" and make it known to readers because, like other specialists, they have made a study of their particular problem. They have applied themselves to evolving the ways and means by which printed information can best be made available. The methods are by no means perfect nor are all the demands met which come to libraries, but it must be said that there is a technique and a science back of all library work without which it would be impossible to survey the field of knowledge as contained in books.

Libraries reach their readers through many channels: by personal contact and through clubs, story hours, extension service, schools, and lectures. Not the least of the means for furthering the use of books is the work which is done behind the scenes in a library where technical methods are being evolved and applied to the classifying and cataloging of books. This service is fundamental since other duties are dependent on its performance. Unless books are carefully and scientifically prepared for the shelves and for circulation, the functions of a library cannot be efficiently fulfilled. It is in the consideration of these methods that we come to the technique of our subject.

III. The Technique of Cataloging

An effort has been made in the foregoing paragraphs to sketch briefly the cataloger's activities in their relation to books and readers without going into the methods of keeping records; but it is in the making of the records pertinent to cataloging and classification that one must apply the technique peculiar to these two branches of library work.

² Agnes Repplier, "Education," *Atlantic Monthly*, CXXIX (April 1922), 487.

Every performance or duty carries with it a technique peculiar to the special type of work to be accomplished. There must be a certain routine and skill of execution which may in itself be devoid of interest but which, when fully understood and justly evaluated, will be accepted as an essential element in achieving the ultimate goal. Catalogers are surrounded with details, and handling these details must be a challenge to the worker to make the technique so perfect and so sane that the ultimate aims of the work will be more forcibly brought into relief.

The student will want to apply himself to mastering the technique of classification and cataloging so that he can arrive as soon as possible at the point at which familiarity with the minutiae will allow him to enjoy his work with books. While he must become an adept in the handling of details, he must never lose sight of the broader side of the work. Technical methods must furnish the means for accomplishing effective results. They must not, however, be overemphasized and so blind him to the more important problems.

The art of knowing what to leave undone is quite as important as the art of knowing what to do; and over and above all rules one must exercise a large share of common sense and judgment which will lead to a consideration of values and keep one from lapsing into fear of error.

1. Book technique.—By book technique is meant the investigation of the physical make-up of a volume as it comes from the press. Without familiarity with the different parts of a printed book the cataloger cannot describe a book satisfactorily. Therefore, the student of cataloging must know the content worth of a book and in addition the bibliographical make-up, which denotes the value the book may have aside from its contents.

2. Classification technique.—Librarians, following in the footsteps of philosophers, have worked over the outlines of knowledge as projected by thinkers such as Aristotle and Bacon and turned them into library schemes. This application of the classification of knowledge to the classification of books has resulted in many printed schemes which have been used in libraries. Some have become obsolete; others have survived and have furnished a basis for modern schemes. It is by means of such a systematic plan that books are classified, and it is in the application of such a scheme to the library book collection that the technique of book classification has been developed.

The study of classification is most fascinating. It gives one a broad conception of subjects, a new comprehension of books, a knowledge of the extent of the field covered by books, and an appreciation of logic which cannot fail to influence one in any undertaking which requires the application of system and order. From this study comes a natural inclination to analyze and clarify each new problem. Hence the person who applies him-

self to this branch of library work will find that he is not only equipped to classify books, but that he has also gained a habit of thinking which can be used to great advantage in any line of work.

3. Cataloging technique.—All catalog entries must be prepared according to codes of rules formulated by librarians after years of experimentation. In these codes is found much of the technique which must be studied if a reasonably consistent catalog is to be compiled. As the architect must make his drawings with an accuracy and nicety which will insure perfect understanding of his plan, so the cataloger must prepare catalog cards in such a way as to give a true description of the bibliographical details of a book. The preparation of the catalog and other records pertinent to its maintenance forms a very important part of the cataloger's work. Fortunately much of the actual duplication of the copy may now be accomplished by mechanical means.

4. Administration technique.—In those libraries which accumulate thousands of volumes, the cataloger is confronted with definite administrative problems. There are questions of sorting, storing, and mechanical handling, and those questions of personnel which must be considered when a staff of considerable size is working with a shifting and ever changing commodity. The adjustment of the mental and mechanical forces within such an organization requires a knowledge of catalog department administration. Recent developments in cooperation between libraries have introduced a new problem with a real bearing on technical processes.

IV. Need for Instruction in the Use of the Catalog

Catalogers are sometimes asked, and justly so, why the catalog cannot be simpler. How can it be very simple when books are so complex and the average reader has next to no knowledge of author, subject, and added entries, or even of the rules for alphabetizing?

The catalog must answer many needs. It is made for all kinds of readers, for those who want exhaustive information and for those who merely want light reading. It is difficult to combine in one tool entries which lead to every kind of book but which are to be used by people of various ages and all degrees of intelligence.

To meet this situation, an interpreter should be on hand to give first aid. A few public libraries, most school libraries, and some college and university libraries offer instruction in the use of the library, including the use of the catalog. Readers who have been taught from childhood the meaning of the catalog get a great deal more out of a library than those who have had no such opportunities. If our purpose is to disseminate knowledge and further the use of books, we should take every opportunity to describe and interpret the catalog, which is the key to the books.

Both formal and informal methods of instruction may be followed to teach readers the value of the card catalog. Formal methods are best suited to school and college libraries, whereas public libraries must rely on informal methods for the most part. Technical language should not be used in explaining the catalog, and the directions given to readers should be brief and as clear as possible.

One effective way for letting a reader know the variety of information a dictionary catalog provides is to give him a series of questions which will enable him to discover the various features for himself. Students of cataloging will find that answering such a set of questions at the outset of their course will help to orient them in their work. The following brief list indicates some of the possibilities of this method.

1. What English translations of Goethe's *Faust* are in this library?
2. Has the library any of Gilbert Murray's translations?
3. Are the names beginning with *Mac* and *Mc* arranged in the catalog as they are in the city telephone book?
4. What was O. Henry's real name?
5. Has the library a copy of Robert Louis Stevenson's short story "The Bottle Imp"?
6. If you look under *Poetry* in the catalog, will you find a list of every book of poetry in the library?
7. Does the library have any books illustrated by Frederic Remington?
8. Is the thirteenth edition of the *Encyclopaedia britannica* in the library?
9. Under what subjects are books on ornithology entered in this catalog?
10. Who wrote *The princess marries the page*?

When questions of this kind have been answered, the reader or student will know, for example, that he can find information about pseudonyms by consulting the catalog, that added entries are made under the names of translators, and that the contents statement will sometimes help to locate items that are not listed independently under an author's name.

V. Compensations

It may be interesting to know that every bit of information which has been accumulated will sometime come into use when one begins to classify and catalog books. With each new day comes some added bit of information gathered as the books are passing by. All this accumulation of facts and impressions goes back into the daily work and lightens the burden as the experience broadens.

Mr. Fortescue, the scholar who gave assistance to readers for many years at the British Museum, aptly said:

Is it not rather the peculiar felicity of the librarian's calling that in whatsoever reading or study he may follow for his own sake, he is also adding steadily to his

ability to carry out his daily duties? . . . Their reading may be wide and desultory, fiction, science, history, any printed matter which comes first to hand; or they may be among those most enviable of readers, who have taken up a hobby and cultivated a taste for the *Iliad*, the *Kalevala*, the river Amazon, the French Revolution, the manufacture of paper kites—it matters little what—and have learnt one great secret of literature, the knowledge that to him who has made a subject his own no book which gives him one new fact, or suggests one new theory, can be dull or barren. But to men and women engaged in other business reading is a pastime only. It is outside the daily work; it cannot be built into the duties of the camp, the court, the counting-house. Not so with the librarian. No reading is alien to his occupation or remote from his daily routine. No scrap of added knowledge, no page of unpractical lore is waste material to him. They are the reeds by the river to-day, but to-morrow they may write for him his most lasting memorial.³

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What reference workers want and expect of catalogers, and the advantages gained through cooperation.

³ G. K. Fortescue, "The British Museum and the completion of the general Catalogue of printed books," *Library Association Record*, III (September 1901), 447-48.

II

How to Read a Book Technically

I. Reading a Book Technically	XI. Introduction
II. Cover Title	XII. Index
III. Binder's Title	XIII. Bibliographies
IV. Half Title	XIV. Signature. Gatherings
V. Series Title	XV. Books With No Title Page
VI. Title Page	XVI. Collation
1. Title page title	1. Volume
2. Author of the book	2. Pagination
3. Edition	3. Illustrations
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VII. Running Title	XVII. Summary
VIII. Dedication	XVIII. Outline Form for Making a
IX. Preface	Catalog Card
X. Table of Contents	

It was suggested in the preceding chapter that those who work constantly with books must acquire a certain book sense or technique. Books have a physical as well as a mental value. Both of these elements must be described in cataloging.

In this chapter we shall take up the study of the physical or bibliographical make-up of a book and try (1) to develop the student's powers of observation so that he may have a basis for his future work, and (2) to point out details about a volume and analyze these so as to determine their value to the cataloger and the reader. Methods of recording the details indicated here will not be considered until the preparation of catalog cards has been studied.

I. Reading a Book Technically

If the average person were asked to describe the physical make-up of a book, it is doubtful whether he could name, with any degree of accuracy, the various sections which go into a well-proportioned volume. Usually only the title page and the table of contents receive any consideration before one plunges into the text. That fascinating foreword of the author—the preface—is too often passed over as something autobiographical and

dull, and the introduction, which frequently elucidates the whole text, is disregarded in one's haste to scrutinize the first chapter.

It is very important that those whose duty it is to describe books, and to facilitate their use, should be familiar with every detail of the author's and the publisher's art. The cataloger must learn what to observe about a volume so that he can put his finger on the essentials without waste of time and effort. He must be able to discern the essence of the book, which the author may have revealed in his preface or his introduction, and come to realize that the "summary chapter" often discloses sufficient information to make the reading of the book as a whole unnecessary for cataloging purposes.

Reading a book technically consists of examining those parts that are auxiliary to the real text. The cataloger must be able to describe a book in such a way that a reader can visualize the volume, its size, date of publication, publisher, and all other details which go into its composition. This technical knowledge makes it possible for the cataloger to read rapidly, but adequately, the large numbers of books which daily come to his desk.

This habit may seem superficial and dangerous to cultivate, but for the cataloger it is an economical measure which can be employed to great advantage. It is not recommended for the reader who must digest and understand every small point treated by the author; nor is it advised for the reader who has plenty of time to linger over a volume and enjoy every whim of its writer; but for the person whose work it is to make books known to others it has come to be a recognized practice. To a successful cataloger it is usually more important to make fifty books known to somebody else than to spend time making a critical study of one book.

The order of this study of books will follow the order of the pages after the cover title and binder's title have been described. Emphasis will be given to points the cataloger will need to use later.

II. Cover Title

The cover title is that printed on the original cover of a book or lettered on the publisher's binding, as distinguished from the title lettered by the binder on the back of a particular copy of the book.

In general this title is unimportant for purposes of cataloging and may be disregarded. If, however, it is a striking title and different from that printed on the title page it should be noted because some reader may remember it or because some printed catalog may have listed it. In either case the reader must know that the library has the book under this title. If there is no title page in the book, as is often the case with pamphlets, the cover title is accepted as the official title.

III. Binder's Title

The binder's title is the title lettered by the binder on the back of a book, as distinguished from the title on the publisher's original binding or cover. If the binder's title or the cover title varies from that on the title page, it is often difficult for the reader and the library assistant to recognize a book on the shelves. The cataloger always lists the book for the reader under the title as given on the title page because it is the official title of the book and subject to less change than other titles. The binder's title is only a whim of the binder and may be corrected when the volume is rebound. It is necessary, however, to take notice of the binder's title as well as of the cover title if either differs from that on the title page. The binder's title may be a common title for a set of volumes or it may be a series title.

IV. Half Title

The half title is a brief title without author's name or imprint, printed on a leaf preceding the main title page; it is also called a bastard title or foretitle. The half title may be of little or no use for the reader or the cataloger unless it is the only title in the book or unless it gives indication of the series.

V. Series Title

Publishers' series.—A publisher's series may be defined as a number of separate works usually related to one another by subject or form; the volumes or parts making up the series are issued in succession by the same publisher in a uniform style and with a collective title.

Monograph series.—A series of monographic works issued by a society or institution and in uniform style under a collective title is called a monograph series. Parts usually are related by subject and are designated by number, or by volume and number, as are the "Johns Hopkins University Studies." The collective series title generally appears at the head of the title page, on the half title page, or on the cover of the book. "Monograph series" is the inclusive term covering publishers' series as well.

Some unimportant publishers' series have little value for the reader, but publications issued in successive parts or intended to be read in sequence are very important. Series are usually known by name or title. Frequently the editor who plans the series and brings its various parts into a whole should be given credit for his work by an entry in the catalog. An example of such a series is "Appleton's Transportation Series," edited by E. R. Johnson.

Author series.—An author's works may be issued in a series of their own. Austin Dobson's *Eighteenth century vignettes*, first-third series, and S. A. Tannenbaum's *Elizabethan bibliographies* illustrate this kind of series.

VI. Title Page

The title page is a page at the front of the book which contains the full title and usually gives author's name, edition (if other than the first), publisher, place and date of publication.

The title page is an important key which the publisher gives us to the book. We are not consulted as to the make-up or contents of the title page; we must, however, interpret it for the reader who has perhaps never seen it. This must be done in such a way as to give as clear a description of the book as possible. The interpretation requires more than the ability to copy what one finds printed on the title page. It often means (1) a selection and transcription of the matter to make the title clear; (2) a change in the form of the author's name to conform to the standardized practices used in a card catalog; and (3) the correct statement of the edition, the publisher, and the place and date of publication.

1. Title page title.—In the broad sense, this title is the distinguishing name of any written production as given on the title page, including the name of the author, editor, translator, the edition, etc. This is the interpretation given the term by librarians and is the one followed in this text. In the narrow sense, the title does not include the name of the author, editor, etc.

Official title.—The title on the title page is the essential caption of the book and is the one which should be accepted, in whole or in part, as the official title by the cataloger. It is considered the true name of a work and is used on all official and public records in the library, and in trade catalogs, such as publishers' lists, secondhand catalogs, etc.

Modification and explanation of the title.—The art of the cataloger comes into play when he is selecting words to be retained in a title which is too long to be used in a catalog. Titles differ in length from one or two words to literally hundreds, and the cataloger must choose what is important and reject the redundant or nonessential.

Those things are important in the title which in any way explain (1) the subject, (2) the point of view of the author, (3) the limits of time or period covered, and (4) the type of reader for whom the book has been written. The nonessential things are the mottoes or quotations often printed as a part of the title, and phrases which shed no light on the subject under discussion or on the author's point of view.

(1) **SUBTITLE.**—The subtitle is the secondary or explanatory title following the main title. It has great importance to the reader because it frequently explains the purpose of the book or shows its limits. The following titles will illustrate:

Thirty years of labor, 1859-1889. The dates in this case compose the subtitle and fix the exact period covered.

School management and methods of instruction; with special reference to elementary schools. Without the last phrase the title would be misleading, but as soon as we know it is limited to elementary schools, we can distinguish it from other books on school management.

(2) **ALTERNATIVE TITLE.**—The alternative title is a subtitle introduced by "or" or its equivalent, e.g., *Fair maid of Perth; or, St. Valentine's day.*

(3) **AMBIGUOUS TITLES.**—When the title is so vague as to be misunderstood, it may be amplified for the reader. Such titles as *Resurrection of our Lord* [*a drama*] and *Fires* [*and other tales in verse*] illustrate this type. Brackets may be used in the title or the information may be given in a note, this latter being the more common procedure. Titles made up of personal names should be explained when they might otherwise be confused with biographies, as, *General John Regan* [*a novel*] or *Abraham Lincoln* [*a play*]. A foreign title with an English text must be explained, as, *Le chevalier de Maison-Rouge* [*in English*]; or an English title with a foreign text, as, *Barnaby Rudge* [*in German*].

(4) **CHANGED TITLES.**—A changed title is a title in a later edition or reprint of a book which differs from the title given when the book was originally printed.

Publishers occasionally change the title of a book to advance its sale, to elucidate its contents, or to adapt it better to an American or an English market. One must be on the alert to discover such variations, which are usually noted in publishers' circulars and in book reviews. Such a change often occurs in fiction when a new reprint is issued; e.g., the story by John Buchan entitled *Great diamond pipe* has also been published under the title *Prester John*. Some readers will ask for the book under one title, while some will remember the other; therefore the cataloger must list both and show the reader that the two titles refer to one and the same text.

Changed titles often appear in revised and abridged editions, in which case the book is usually considered as a new work. It must, however, be linked up with the original and following editions for the sake of showing the reader that it is still the same work.

2. **Author of the book.**—In a broad sense the author is the writer of the book or the person or body immediately responsible for its existence. Thus, a person who collects and puts together the writings of several authors (compiler or editor) may be said to be the author of a collection even though he has not actually written the text. Corporate bodies, such as societies, firms, institutions, etc., may be considered the authors of publications issued in their name or by their authority.

The title page frequently helps in identifying an author. The desire of the author to place himself with his readers and so prove his ability to treat his text as a specialist gives the cataloger a clew. For example, such

phrases as *Ph. D. (Harvard)*; *Professor of Physics, Yale University*; *President of the Bank of America*; *Member of the National Geographic Society* furnish valuable keys by which the author may be identified. With these hints one may go to college catalogs, directories, and membership lists of societies and obtain full information as to the author's real name and identity.

Again, titles of other books written by the same author are often listed after his name on the title page. These books may already be in the library catalog and the form of the author's name may be at once identified and accepted.

French authors often omit Christian names from the title page and merely use letters standing for titles, as, for example, *M.* for *Monsieur*, *P.* for *Père* and *R. P.* for *Révérend père*. Unless one is familiar with this practice, the letters may incorrectly be accepted as the author's initials.

3. Edition.—The edition is usually designated on the title page, but not always. Sometimes the information is to be found in the preface, introduction, or cover title, or on the verso of the title page. Wherever it occurs, it is an important characteristic of the book.

The definition of edition as given in the *A.L.A. Catalog rules* is "the whole number of copies printed from the same set of types and issued at the same time." Holden says:

Edition is not used in connection with repeated printings unless there are changes in the text, a revision, [or] new matter added. . . . If it is a new printing only, without changes, the term should be *issue*, *impression* or *printing*, or simply a statement of the total number of copies printed to date.¹

McKerrow makes this even more definite when he says:

We can define "edition" as the whole number of copies of a book printed at any time or times from one setting-up of type (including copies printed from the stereotype or electrotpe plates made from that setting-up of type), and "impression" as the whole number of copies printed at one time, i.e. in ordinary circumstances the total number of copies printed without removing the type or plates from the press.²

Thus, in the true sense the edition indicated is not a question of reprinting, pure and simple, but of a reprinting carrying a certain number of modifications, suppressions, or additions. The significant and important thing for the reader to know is whether there has been a change in the text of the book, and if so, what the change is. For example, a particular edition may be demanded because it is the only edition which contains notes; again, the third edition may be the one wanted because it has been revised by an authoritative writer.

¹ J. A. Holden, *The bookman's glossary* (N. Y.: Bowker, 1925), p.44.

² R. B. McKerrow, *An introduction to bibliography* (Oxford: Clarendon, [1928]), p.175.

Cutter has recorded the reasons for giving the edition statement:

The specification of edition is necessary: (1) for the student, who often wants a particular edition and cares no more for another than he would for an entirely different work; (2) in the library service, to prevent the rejection of works which are not really duplicates. And the number of the edition is a fact in the literary history of the author worth preserving under his name; under the subject it is some guarantee for the repute, if not for the value, of the work. Nevertheless it is not worth while . . . to note 10th thous. or the like, which usually is simply an advertisement and does not imply any change in the work.³

Reprints.—A reproduction of an earlier edition of a book without alterations, except in outward form, made after one or more editions have already been printed from the same plates, is called a *reprint*. A new title page may be used with or without the addition or substitution of the date of the reprint. Reproductions in facsimile, whether printed from type or otherwise, are called *facsimile reprints*.

Changes in content and form.—The original book as issued may be changed in content or form, and either of these alterations may designate another or changed edition. The changes in the content or text consist usually of revisions, enlargements, abridgments, expurgations, adaptations, or new supplementary material in addition to the text.

(1) **REVISED AND ENLARGED EDITIONS.**—Editions in which the text has been changed by revisions, modifications, additions, or corrections that remedy faults in the preceding edition are called revised or enlarged editions. These changed texts are designated as 2d edition, 3d edition, 6. Auflage, nouvelle édition, etc., according to the revision made.

(2) **ABRIDGED EDITIONS. EPITOMES.**—Editions which reproduce only fragments of a complete work, or which briefly summarize the original text of the work, are called abridged editions. Such editions must be distinguished from the large unabridged edition of the same work, so that the reader will get the edition he wants.

(3) **EXPURGATED EDITION.**—An expurgated edition is one from which objectionable parts in the original text have been deleted. These, like abridged editions, must be distinguished from other editions.

(4) **ADAPTATIONS. DRAMATIZATIONS.**—An adaptation is an edition rewritten in such a way as to adapt or adjust the text to a type of reader different from the one for whom the author originally wrote. Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare* illustrates such an adaptation; also *The lady of the lake*, by Sir Walter Scott, dramatized by Margaret Dakin and Miriam Thomas.⁴

Many adaptations, also called "retold stories," are written for children.

³ C. A. Cutter, *Rules for a dictionary catalogue* (4th ed.; Washington: Govt. print. off., 1904), p.99.

⁴ See J. D. Fellows, *Cataloging rules* (2d ed.; N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1922), §162.

Adventures of Odysseus; retold is an illustration. As juvenile books are usually shelved in a room apart from the adult collection, the original edition may be separated from the adaptation.

(5) **NEW MATERIAL SUPPLEMENTARY TO THE TEXT.**—An edition having no change in text, but having a different make-up because of new material, which may be in the form of additional chapters, notes, an appendix, or introduction, should be considered a different edition.

In books of this kind, the value and importance of the material determines its treatment. If the material is of value to the reader, the book must be considered a separate work in order to distinguish it from the same book without this supplementary matter. A volume of fiction, for example, which has been printed with a good biographical preface is not the same book as another copy without this preface. In this case the book is considered another edition so that the reader may call for the book which will give him this special information about the author.

(6) **SPECIALLY ILLUSTRATED EDITIONS.**—If an edition is unusual or important for its illustrations, it should be distinguished from an unillustrated edition.

(7) **AUTHOR'S EDITION.**—Publishers often issue the collected or complete works of an author uniformly bound and with a collective title, such as *The writings in prose and verse of Rudyard Kipling*. These are commonly known as authors' editions. Such combinations of titles, each of which the library may have in other editions, introduce problems.

(8) **OTHER EDITIONS.**—Some libraries may also want to distinguish books having the same contents but appearing in different form, as large paper editions, popular editions, folio editions, and editions of one or more volumes.

(9) **COPIES.**—If two books are exactly alike as far as the printing of the text is concerned and the change in other parts of the book is of little or no value, no distinction is necessary. In that case the books are merely considered as two *copies*. Of course this rule frequently does not apply to the first issue of the first edition which may have value, especially in literary works, quite different from other issues of the same edition.

4. **Imprint.**—The place, publisher's name, and date of publication, ordinarily printed at the foot of the title page, are called the imprint. The copyright date often found on the verso (or reverse side) of the title page may also be a part of the imprint.

Place of publication.—This designates the location of the publishing house from which the book emanated. It does not always signify, however, whether the book is an American or foreign publication, for in this day of branch publishing houses, that fact cannot always be taken for granted. Sometimes an American house has a London office, and consequently both New York and London appear on the title page.

The place of publication has weight for certain classes of readers, but for the popular public library it is rather unimportant. However, if the reader wishes to read a book treating of the birds of America, he may not want a book published in London or Berlin. He will select the book published in America. There are cases, however, where a scientific book on an American topic has, for reasons of economy, been published in France or Germany but still represents the American point of view.

Publisher.—The publisher is the person, body, or firm responsible for the production, distribution, and first sale of a book.

It is sometimes just as important to select a book issued by a good publisher as it is to select one written by an author of repute. The name of the publisher with a reputation for printing only high-class, authoritative works adds weight to the book and offers another guide to the reader in making his selection when confronted with many titles treating of the same subject. For example, a technical book published by McGraw-Hill carries more weight than another book on the same subject published by a publisher who does not specialize in the field of technology. If readers wish to purchase books it is convenient for them to find the name of the publisher on the catalog card.

Date of publication.—The date printed at the bottom of the title page may generally be accepted as the date when the book in hand was printed. It does not indicate the date when the book was first printed if more than one edition has been issued. The date changes with reprinting, as was explained above under *Edition*. The title page date should always be compared with the copyright date. The first copyright date may usually be accepted as belonging to the first printing.

The date is important in all books except fiction, and even in this class it is a convenience to know if the edition is modern, or to show the author's "latest" novel. Being one of the most important items about a book, it must generally be supplied when it is not on the title page. Often it is to be found at the end of the preface, the dedication, or the introduction, but if it cannot be cited anywhere in the book itself, reference aids and other catalogs must be consulted in an endeavor to locate it. If all means of finding it fail, the text must be examined to see if dates have been used by the author in treating his subject. Take for example a book on modern history; if the text is brought down to 1914, the book must have been issued after that date. The cataloger can give the reader this information by using [1915?] as a probable date of publication. The brackets show that the date is supplied, and the interrogation mark shows that the cataloger has not been able to discover the exact year of publication.

In a work made up of several volumes the dates of publication may differ in the different volumes. Occasionally a book marked v.5, for example, will have an earlier date than v.1 of the same set.

Copyright date.—Copyright is a grant to an author by which the government assures protection against the use of his text by another. It gives the author, for a certain term of years, private and personal right to manufacture, print, and vend his own production. The copyright notice, usually printed on the verso of the title page, is the date when the grant was given to the author. The first date signifies the date of the first edition of a copyrighted book and corresponds to the imprint date of the original edition. If several copyright dates are given, they signify either a change in the text or a renewal of the copyright.

When a book has gone through more than one edition, the copyright date is valuable in showing that the book under discussion is not the first issue, but that other and earlier editions have appeared.

VII. Running Title

The title repeated at the top of the page throughout a book is called the running title. If the title page is wanting, this running title is very useful and may be used by the cataloger in lieu of the title on the title page. It has no real value to call to the attention of the reader unless it is striking and will be remembered.

VIII. Dedication

The dedication is an expression of homage on the part of the author to another person; it is usually brief and is placed at the front of the book just before the preface. Unless this dedication has some real literary value apart from the book or is addressed to a person of distinction, it need not be called to the attention of the reader. Should the dedication be a poem such as "To the Three Vikings" in Boyesen's *Modern vikings*, its presence might well be recorded, since some reader may want to locate it.

The biographical value of a dedication is very real if one is collecting all the information about a distinguished person. The fact that an author has dedicated his work to such a person may reveal important information to his biographer.

IX. Preface

The preface is a discourse, or note, which precedes the text; it contains the explanations which the author judges necessary to give to his readers. It may be written to present the author's plan, to set forth the objects of the book, to tell why it was written, to explain how the subject was developed, or to make acknowledgment for assistance received.

This foreword may be most useful to the cataloger in giving a brief survey of the text, and in providing catch phrases which may reveal the scope, purpose, and value of the text. Such phrases are: "Can be used by

beginners"; "Requires a knowledge of mathematics"; "Considers the subject in its application to the progressive development of industry"; "The purpose of this book is to bring together the fundamentals of the techniques of teaching and to indicate their use in the teaching of industrial subjects." All these phrases help to place the book by giving a key to the subject, or by showing the point of view from which it has been treated.

Again, the preface may show that the material is not new, that the chapters have already been given as lectures before some association or body and have been issued in the "Proceedings" of that body. If the "Proceedings" referred to are in the library, two copies of these lectures are thus listed for use.

The author in his preface may compare his book with others on the same subject. This information tells the cataloger with what group the writer classes his own book and gives an excellent hint to aid in shelving this book with others of the same kind.

The preface is frequently very important in establishing the real author of a book when the name has been omitted from the title page.

Certain prefaces have been real literary events. That which Renan wrote for his *Life of Christ* may be cited, and also those in which Alexander Dumas discusses his dramatic works. Bernard Shaw has made the prefaces to his plays of such interest that one cannot afford to pass them over. The cataloger should acquaint the reader with such forewords, since they have the same value as an independent book.

In some books the preface is written by a writer different from the author of the book and may take on independent value because this writer is an authority on the subject discussed in the book; his views may be sought by certain readers even though they may be expressed in the preface to another author's work. In this case the cataloger will often want to make known the writer of the preface as well as the author of the book.

X. Table of Contents

The table of contents, which usually follows the title page, is a list of chapter headings in the order in which they occur. There may or may not be a detailed explanation of the topics treated in each chapter. The table of contents allows the cataloger to see at a glance the whole field covered by the book. Certain chapter headings may at once suggest further investigation, such as: "A brief history of the subject," "Conclusion," or "Summary chapter." The last two usually give a digest of the author's views and often furnish the kernel of the book. Some chapters may also suggest subjects to be analyzed in the catalog.

In collections, such as essays, plays, lectures, and speeches, if the title fails to show the contents covered by the book, the catalog should list the chapters so that the reader can select the special subject or chapter he is

seeking. Books in several volumes having a distinctive subtitle in each volume should be treated in the same way.

The table of contents in most foreign language books is placed at the end rather than at the beginning of the volume.

XI. Introduction

The preliminary discourse or note, usually following the table of contents, is called the introduction. It sometimes forms the first chapter of the book, and gives a more elaborate development of the author's subject than the preface does. Its object is to present some historical, literary, or scientific facts destined to facilitate a comprehension of the whole work. It may have more value to the cataloger than the preface.

It is a common practice for the introduction of a work to be written by a person other than the author of the book, in which case the introduction has a value apart from the book itself; e.g., the introduction to *Sheridan's Rivals* by Brander Matthews might be of great interest and value to certain readers, and it may appear in the catalog under Matthews.

XII. Index

The index to a book may be defined as a detailed alphabetical list of names and subjects treated in the text, with exact page references.

The table of contents gives a systematic arrangement of the material in the book while the index gives a more detailed alphabetical list. Usually the index to a book is not consulted unless a specific topic is wanted; however, the cataloger who glances through the index may be reminded of subjects which differ from the main theme of the book. Take, for example, a descriptive book on South Africa. The question at once comes to the mind of the cataloger: What does this book describe aside from the scenery, manners, and customs as revealed in the table of contents? This question is answered when, by perusing the index, one catches such an entry as "Diamond mines," showing from twenty-five to fifty pages given to this subject. In this case the additional material should be brought out in the catalog.

If works are made up of several volumes, of which one or more are index volumes, these index volumes should be indicated on the catalog card.

XIII. Bibliographies

Cutter says that a bibliography is a list of books of a particular author, printer, place, or period, or on any particular theme; it is the literature of a subject. In a broader sense it may be made to include lists of patents, artists' productions, etc.

Bibliographies may be included at the beginning or end of chapters, in footnotes, or at the end of the book. The references so listed may serve

the cataloger to place the book in hand with other books of like kind, for in studying the titles in these bibliographies the cataloger discovers the sources the author has used, or those he recommends as contributing to the subject under discussion. Every aid of this kind is useful in the classification and grouping together of books that are similar in kind.

Bibliographies are also very important to the reader and should always be called to his attention. If he is interested in some special subject, he is always on the alert for new titles such as these bibliographies may suggest.

The list of an author's works adds value to a volume of literary criticism or biography; bibliographical information found in a list of patents cited in a technical book is of great importance to a scientific man; a list of pictures painted by the artist under discussion will perhaps give the reader just what he most wants about a particular artist. These bibliographies often have the same value as a separate book and contain information not available in any other form.

XIV. Signature. Gatherings

"'Signature' is the letter or other mark to be found at the foot of the first leaf (and generally of one or more following leaves) of a gathering, and its purpose is mainly to guide the binder in the arrangement of the gatherings."⁵

Gatherings are the printed sheets of a book folded to the format of the book as bound. It is these folded sheets which require the cutting of leaves in many books.

XV. Books With No Title Page

If the title page of an old book has been torn or lost and there is no cover title, running title, or binder's title, it is extremely difficult to identify the book. In this case one must examine the gatherings to see whether by any chance they bear the title of the book on the first fold. With this as a guide one can consult other catalogs, biographical dictionaries, or reference books, to identify the book in hand. After the cataloger is convinced that the identification is accurate, he can accept and use the entry found. A typewritten or photostat title page should be pasted in the book by the cataloger to save the time of others in making a duplicate search.

XVI. Collation

The collation is that part of the catalog entry which specifies the volumes, pages, illustrations, plates, maps, and other illustrative material constituting the book.

⁵ R. B. McKerrow, *An introduction to bibliography* (Oxford: Clarendon, [1928]), p.73.

The value of these items to users of a library is variable, depending upon the type of reader using the books and the character of the book collection. If one is making a comparative study of editions, all these items may be useful, because they designate certain features which differentiate one book from another.

If the book collection is made up of rare books which have unusual bibliographical worth, these details should be designated. For the average library the collation may be considered essential in some instances and nonessential in others. The staff, as well as the readers, must be considered in determining the value of items in the collation.

1. Volume.—The term volume has two meanings. It is used to signify, first, a bound or unbound book. This is considering a book as a physical unit. Second, the bibliographical meaning of volume connotes the divisions an author or publisher gives to a specific work. Usually each definite volume has its own title page. If two volumes are bound in one cover this fact must be designated on the catalog card.

The citation "2v. in 4" signifies that a treatise is in two parts called volume one and volume two but the two have been bound in four binder's volumes. These are recorded for statistical purposes as four volumes since each physical unit is an entity. The citation "4v." indicates that the author, publisher, and binder all intended the work to be in four volumes. The number of volumes should always be noted when there are more than one, since the reader, when calling for a book, must know how many pieces make up that work.

The French use the terms "volume" and "tome": "volume" to mean the material or physical part of a work, "tome" to designate the author's division of his work, not the binder's.

2. Pagination.—Pagination may be defined as a system of signs or numbers by which the consecutive pages of a book are indicated. In a paged book each leaf is numbered on both sides, and each of these sides is called a page. The right-hand page of an open book is the recto and the left-hand page is the verso. Half title, title page, preface, and table of contents, as well as other preliminary matter not included in the main paging, are in library practice called "preliminary leaves."

The importance attached to details of paging when cataloging books is measured by the character of the library. Very accurate paging must be used when rare books are described or when very full cataloging is being done as in university libraries. But a public library, circulating fiction and popular books, does not need to do such meticulous work. The main paging is sufficient to record and some libraries omit even this, especially in works of fiction. For the large library the item has a rather important use for the order and catalog departments in identifying editions. When replacing books, assistants in these departments need to verify the paging

to be sure that the edition ordered or received is a duplicate of the one withdrawn.

3. Illustrations.—In a restricted but popular sense, the term "illustrations" is used to cover all kinds of display matter included as frontispiece or inserted in the text of a book. The value of illustrations to the reader is relative; to certain classes of books pictures add much interest; in other cases they add nothing. Art books, travel books, books of costumes, and nearly all books for children need illustrations to elucidate the text, and mathematical and engineering books need diagrams to interpret problems. Except in these cases where illustrations greatly enhance the value of books, the cataloger need not mention them particularly.

If one considers illustrations in a still more restricted sense, he may class them as follows: plates, photographs, portraits, maps, plans, facsimiles, tables, diagrams. Any or all of these details may be of value to the reader depending again on the subject treated and the demands made upon each library.

Plates.—Plates may be defined as full page illustrations usually printed on special (heavy) paper, one side of the leaf being normally blank. Plates are not as a rule included in the pagination. They may be bound in the book or loose in a portfolio.

Photographs and portraits.—Photographs and portraits contribute so much to biographical books that the cataloger is justified in noting them, but he would hardly be warranted in specifying them for all books in other classes.

Maps, plans, facsimiles, tables, and diagrams.—These special illustrations do not need to be defined here since they are well-known terms. They are generally used only in classes of books where the text needs elucidation. Maps add to the value of history, geography, and travel books; plans are important in architectural books; facsimiles are necessary to the student of autographs and epigraphy; and tables and diagrams should be noted in cataloging statistical, mathematical, and engineering works.

Libraries specializing in any of these subjects, as well as large libraries, would certainly be obliged to note the fact that these details exist in certain books. Small libraries would probably not find it necessary to specify any of them, except maps in works of history.

4. Size.—The size of a book may be shown by giving the exact measurement of its height in inches or centimeters, or by citing the number of pages. Neither of these measurements alone gives a true picture of the extent of the printed matter included. A book of three hundred pages may be made up of small or large pages, or these pages may have narrow or broad margins. Again, the cover of a book may be very high and very wide, but the item may contain only four or five pages. To show the reader how much reading matter he is getting in a certain book, both paging and

height should be given. Small libraries should not spend the time to give size, although many larger libraries will. Before deciding to omit this item entirely, one must consider another aspect of the question, namely, the shelving of books over a certain size. The large majority of books in a library are octavo in size, not more than 25 cm. in height. Since this is true, the shelves should be arranged for these books, and the books which are quarto, or over, should be stored in specially arranged shelves which are large enough to take all quartos and folios, or all books over 25 cm. in height. All such books, known as oversize books, shelved apart from the regular octavo volumes, must be marked with a special symbol to show their location.⁶

XVII. Summary

By means of this examination of the make-up of books the cataloger (1) can discover facts which, when applied to the catalog, assist the reader in his choice of books, and (2) can gather suggestions from books which lead to investigations about the author as well as to the correlation of the individual book with other books.

Certain items yielded by an examination of the title page and other features of the book, physical or bibliographical, are essential for the identification of the book for any library, whatever its size and character. Other details are relatively important depending upon the character and use of the collection. Items essential for any collection are author and title (including edition); those generally desirable, and essential for most collections, are place, publisher, and date; those which vary with the library are collation, contents, and other notes.

Uniformity in cataloging practice does not seem justified in all details; there is no reason why the small library should keep repeating unnecessary minutiae which are seldom wanted. Certain bibliographical details may be indispensable for scholars, that is, for readers in university libraries and for students of rare books; but in the average library there may be many more telling ways of assisting the reader than in laboriously citing detailed information which he would use but rarely and which he could obtain from the books themselves or from bibliographical reference books if needed. In considering any omissions, however, one must always keep in mind the probable growth of the library. It is better to record too much rather than too little.

XVIII. Outline Form for Making a Catalog Card

✓ As soon as the student begins courses in library science he will be called upon to copy references and to compile bibliographies. It is, therefore,

⁶ This designation is usually made a part of the call number so that the book may be quickly located. This is touched upon again on p.93.

very important for him to know the correct cataloging forms. There is a generally accepted way of preparing a catalog entry which must be recognized if uniformity is to be preserved, and the sooner the student learns it the better.

A skeleton catalog card is pictured here to show the order and indention followed in preparing a catalog entry. Words such as *Author*, *Title*, and *Collation* are to be replaced by these items. The items *Title*, *Collation*, *Notes* and *Contents* are indented to subordinate them to the author heading, but if these run over two lines or more, these added lines take the indention of the author so that a paragraph form for the whole entry will be preserved. The only word now on the skeleton card which is ever retained is the word *Contents*. All others are replaced.⁷

Call	
no.	Author's family name, Christian names, dates of birth and death.
	Title, including edition.....
 Place, publisher, date.
	Collation..... (Series note.....)
	Notes.....
	Contents.....

References

AKERS, S. G. Simple library cataloging. 2d ed. Chicago: A.L.A., 1935.

"Definitions of technical terms used," p.159-62.

American booktrade directory. N. Y.: Bowker, 1915-

Gives a directory of publishers in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain; names of former American publishing companies and their successors; American representatives of British publishers; and American and Canadian booksellers.

BAY, J. C. "The problem of collations," *Library Journal*, LVII (October 1932), 868-69.

In answer to an inquiry concerning the practice of recording pagination only in the case of works in one volume.

⁷ A more detailed explanation and a model card are given on p.104.

COWLES, BARBARA, *comp.* Bibliographer's glossary of foreign words and phrases; an alphabet of terms in bibliographical and booktrade use, compiled from 20 languages. N. Y.: Bowker, 1933. 82 numb. 1.

DIESERUD, JUUL. "The abbreviation of imprints," *Library Quarterly*, IV (April 1934), 179-84.

Emphasizes the need for a detailed guide to the abbreviation of imprints and gives the policy of the Library of Congress in this regard. A photoprint of this might be useful for catalogers and students of cataloging.

GARLAND, D. L. "On bibliographical terminology," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, II (1930), 111-16.

Shows the importance of the edition and imprint items and, through the use of illustrations, proves their importance to the reader.

HOLDEN, J. A. The bookman's glossary. 2d ed. rev. and enl. N. Y.: Bowker, 1931. 153p.

Includes terms used in producing books and in their distribution.

PEDDIE, R. A. Place names in imprints; an index to the Latin and other forms used on title pages. London: Grafton, 1932. 61 numb. 1.

An alphabetic list useful to all catalogers. Limited to Europe; Slavonic forms are excluded.

PINTO, OLGA. Termini d'uso nelle bibliografie dei periodici, saggio compilato in 38 lingue. Roma: Bardi, 1929. 89p.

Gives technical terms in thirty-eight languages, including English, used in connection with the bibliographical listing of periodical literature. Very useful for cataloging continuations.

SWAIN, OLIVE. Notes used on catalog cards. Chicago: A.L.A., 1940. 102p.

A pamphlet listing notes used on Library of Congress and other catalog cards, without regard to consistency.

U.S. Government Printing Office. Manual of foreign languages for the use of printers and translators. 3d ed., rev. and enl. Apr. 1936. By George F. von Ostermann. Washington: [Govt. print. off.], 1936. 347p.

——— Style manual (abridged) Rev. ed. Jan. 1939. Washington: [Govt. print. off.], 1939. 195p.

WALTERS, F. K. Abbreviations and technical terms used in book catalogs and in bibliographies. Boston: Boston book co., [1917]. 263p.

Abbreviations and terms given in Danish-Norwegian, Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Latin, Spanish, and Swedish. Supplemented by Moth's *Technical terms*.

Some Practical Questions

1. Select several books and analyze the items on the title page which you consider useful for the reader.
2. Familiarize yourself with book technique by examining the following kinds of books as assigned by the instructor:
 - a) A book in which the title page title differs from the binder's title
 - b) Three books showing a difference in fulness of the table of contents
 - c) Two books listing bibliographies

- d) Two books written by the same author but having different forms of personal name on the title page
 - e) A book in which two authors are mentioned on the title page
 - f) Several different editions of a well-known work
3. State in what way the following citations, which have been taken from actual books, are inadequate:
- a) *Chamier's Life of a sailor*, Preface to 2d ed., Chap. XVIII
 - b) Report of Acting-Commodore Crease, Sept. 1, 1814; Niles, VII, supplement, p.150
 - c) *Campbell's History of Virginia*, quoted by Mr. Tyler, *History of American literature*, vol. II, p.261
4. How would you interpret the following designations if you found them in a library catalog:
- a) v.1-3. 1910-13
 - b) 2 pts. in 2v. 1913-14
 - c) 2. ed. 4v. 1859-62
 - d) Contains facsimile of original title page, Leyden, 1638
 - e) 2. ed., rewritten & enl. 2 pts. in 2v. 1913
 - f) Translated from the fourth German edition
 - g) Avec une introduction sur sa vie et ses ouvrages, tirée de sa correspondance inédite, par Victor Cousin
 - h) A new ed. rev., cor., and enl., by Joshua Toulmin
 - i) [n.p., n.d.]
 - j) Londini, Sumptibus societatis, 1737
 - k) . . . 253 Tafeln in Farbendruck mit Textband . . . München, H. Schmidt [c1921-25]
 - l) Traduction effectuée d'après la 2e édition russe (entièrement revue, refaite et complétée par l'auteur) par Léon Dlougatch
 - m) Delafield, E. M. [*pseud.* of Edmée Elizabeth Monica De La Pasture]
 - n) Alumni number; comp. by H. [!] H. Botsford
5. Copy on cards all items from three Library of Congress printed catalog cards, which are assigned by the instructor, giving special attention to indention, order of entries, spacing, and capitalization.
6. Secure the Library of Congress card for this book *Introduction to cataloging and the classification of books* and analyze every item on the card.

III

The Grouping of Books

- | | |
|---|---|
| I. Introduction to Classification | 2. Second group—Architectural details |
| 1. Need for system in arranging books | 3. Third group—Styles of architecture |
| 2. Factors in the arrangement of books | 4. Fourth group—Special classes of buildings |
| 3. Group arrangement or classification | 5. Fifth group—Architectural design and decoration |
| 4. Policies of classification | 6. Sixth group—Miscellaneous |
| 5. Some terms with definitions | 7. Seventh group—Books for special classes of readers |
| II. The Grouping of Architectural Books: A Type Study | 8. Summary |
| 1. First group—General books | |

The organization of books into well-ordered groups eliminates for the user of the library the necessity of a fruitless examination of a great many volumes when a definite subject is needed. Therefore, in this chapter we shall study books as groups in order to arrive at some of the underlying principles governing their systematic arrangement on the shelves. This study will introduce some problems and principles of book arrangement which should be realized before the study of a definite classification schedule is undertaken.

While principles of book classification will be introduced, these can be treated only briefly. The beginner is referred to an excellent textbook on classification by W. C. Berwick Sayers.¹ It should be read by anyone wanting a more exhaustive account of the subject.

I. Introduction to Classification

1. **Need for system in arranging books.**—If one should study the questions which come to libraries it would not be difficult to realize the great demands made on book collections both inside and outside the library building. For example, in one of the large public libraries during one year 27,222 questions were answered by the reference department of the central library alone and 1,807,377 volumes were circulated by this library

¹ W. C. B. Sayers, *An introduction to library classification, theoretical, historical and practical* (5th ed. rev.; London: Grafton, 1938), 351p.

for home use during the same period. The selection and handling of books involved in answering such demands make apparent the need for a very definite system of arrangement.

Inquiries come for books by certain authors and by specific titles, but the majority come for a definite (sometimes indefinite) subject. A single book may satisfy the reader, and again a whole group of books may have to be consulted and used comparatively before he can be served. It is more often a case of being unable to locate the right book than of having no book which answers the question. Therefore, it is imperative that the library adopt a system for allocating its books which will make possible prompt and effective service. Attention must be directed to giving quick access to an individual book and also to groups of books.

Fortunately there is a close connection between the way men write and the way men think. Therefore, there are usually books ready to meet the various requests; in other words, books naturally fall into usable groups. There are not only many books treating of the same subject, but there are those on each subject which are written in ways suitable for different types of readers. The general book appeals to the person who wants a broad treatment of a subject; the specialized treatise satisfies the scholar in search of minute detail. Thus we find books answering the demand of the general reader and of the specialist as well. Further, we find textbooks for the student; the simplified text for the child; poems, dramas, and essays for the lover of literature; and encyclopedias for the one in need of first aid. This practical use is a basis for a convenient order.

As Dr. Richardson has said:

Libraries are not gotten together as a museum to exhibit what we have called the fossils of knowledge. . . . The books are collected for use. They are administered for use. They are arranged for use; and it is use which is the motive of classification. . . . In an unclassified library the books are classified over again every time a man wants to use them. It is a labor saving device to assemble them in classes for all instead.²

2. Factors in the arrangement of books.—If use is a determining factor in classification, the librarian must look for certain desirable factors in arrangement and select a method of grouping books which will be logical and at the same time convenient for service. The following four points may be worthy of consideration in this connection.

Like books brought together.—Books should be grouped so that they may be used in relation to one another. The person who wishes to know what the library has on a certain subject wants to select from among many books those which will best meet his needs. The same is true of the reference librarian who should be able to go to the shelves and find all the books on one subject together.

² E. C. Richardson, *Classification* (2d ed.; N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1930), p.26.

Related books in close proximity.—If every book takes its relative location on the shelves, it will stand near others with which it can be correlated. In this way one subject merges into another, related topics bearing on a main class are brought into relief, and the reader is led from one subject to the next most closely related.

Possibility of inserting books into the organized groups.—Demand makes it desirable to have recent accessions available in their proper places with other works of like kind. This means that the shelf arrangement should be flexible, so that volumes may be inserted in their proper groups. The arrangement should permit continued moving of books from shelf to shelf without destroying their logical order. Their location must not be fixed, but relative.

Books must be marked with an individual symbol.—A symbol must be provided for marking books so that they can be returned to their correct location on the shelves. This identifying symbol may then be made to serve a variety of other library functions, such as the call and charging systems.

3. Group arrangement or classification.—If he is to realize an arrangement that will take these factors into account, the librarian has to consider (a) the principles of group arrangement or book classification, and (b) the function of book notation.

Definition of classification.—Classification is, in its simplest statement, the putting together of similar things, or, more fully described, it is the arranging of things according to likeness and unlikeness. It is the sorting^{*} and grouping of things, but, in addition, classification of books is a knowledge classification with adjustments made necessary by the physical form of books. Another definition has been well given by Mr. Hawkes:

Book (or Bibliographical) Classification is an arrangement of books by which the topics, subjects, and sciences of which they treat are associated together on the shelves in a more or less logical sequence of diminishing intimacy of purport or purpose, or *in the absence of subject significance, by the form in which they are cast*: the purpose of such arrangement being, primarily, to facilitate the discovery of knowledge in literature, and secondarily, to group together the books most advantageously consulted together.³

Adaptability of books to classification.—In looking for likeness in books we are conscious at once that both form and content may be considered. It has already been observed that every book has both a physical and a content value. Either of these elements might be used as a basis for their arrangement. We might, for example, class all books by size, but by adopting this plan we should get an accidental likeness of our object which has no relation to its content. Such an arrangement would not

^{*}A. J. Hawkes, "Form in classification," *The Librarian and Book World*, XXVI (October 1936), 32-33.

answer the questions relative to subject, author, or title. It would defeat our purpose in attempting to arrange books so that they may have the greatest possible use. Books are not used because they are octavos or folios, but because, by giving a printed exposition of subjects, they provide the answers to specific questions. They are selected by readers because they have a text which interests or gives information, and it is this information along with use which must be considered in selecting a method of arrangement.

When one begins to look within books for answers to the four requirements mentioned above, the opportunities narrow down to an author or a subject arrangement.

(1) **AUTHOR ARRANGEMENT.**—If arrangement by authors is adopted, books by the same writer will stand together irrespective of the subject. This is not a bad arrangement for those authors whose works belong to *belles-lettres*, since works falling into this class are seldom sought from the subject side; they have more literary than subject value. These are frequently grouped (1) by language or literature, the latter being often determined by the author's nationality; (2) by form, as poetry, drama, essays, etc.; and (3) by the name of the author. By this method all English poetry, for example, is brought together and the individual books within that group are arranged alphabetically by author. Such books belong to what is called in library parlance the "literature class." Author arrangement within this class meets a real demand which no principles of classification can afford to ignore.

On the other hand, if books having decided subject value are arranged by the names of the persons writing them without consideration of the subject content, the person who wants to see what the library has on Gothic architecture, for example, will not find these books together on the shelves. Arrangement by author usually answers one of two questions: (1) Has the library a book by a certain author whose name the reader knows? and (2) What books have been written by a certain author whose name the reader knows? Such an arrangement would not bring together books on the same subject. Use of the shelves would be limited to an author approach, and while there is a decided need for such an approach (and most classification schemes provide for it in Literature), it is by means of the catalog and not the classification that books are generally found from the author side.

(2) **SUBJECT ARRANGEMENT.**—In looking for likeness in subjects of books a basis can be found for arrangement which will bring together large groups of books, and one which will probably best answer the majority of demands made on the collection. As books are merely the written expression of facts and fancies, it follows naturally that it is these elements which must furnish the classifier with his key to the arrange-

ment. It is the contents within the books which must be classified in order to bring together information contributing to one and the same subject. Books on art, birds, history, religion, or science are wanted for the subject matter they contain, regardless of size, title, or even authors.

4. **Policies of classification.**—It is in the study of resemblances that one finds differences. It is the adjustment of these differences in books when treated in groups which adds complications to the problems of classification. Nor do the problems rest with the classification of one book; it is the placing of a book in its proper relation to others, and the correlation of groups of books in a logical whole, which require study.

It is not difficult to determine the classification of books which belong to the large classes, or even the large divisions of these classes. Books on chemistry are easily separated from those on botany, and histories of the United States are not readily confused with those treating of the history of Germany. Difficulties are encountered when closely related topics must be differentiated. Subjects overlap and blend so that it becomes difficult to know where one ends and the other begins. For example, when does a book on railroads belong to the economics group and when to the engineering group? Again, should the books on heredity be kept with evolution or with physiology, or should they be kept in a group by themselves, thus taking important books away from these two large classes?

Groups of books devoted to one field must be kept as intact as possible, but the classifier will realize that some sacrifices have to be made for reasons of library policy. For example, if it has been deemed best to classify archeology with history, it must be understood that some good material on this subject is going to be kept out of the architecture group and so weaken that section. Likewise, if volumes treating of gold mining in South Africa are classed with the other mining books of that country, the group treating of gold mining in general will be deprived of some excellent contributory matter.

The purpose of the library is a determining factor in formulating policies of classification. The *special library*, limiting its collection to one field, will tend to focus all books on the one subject in which the library is specializing. For example, in an engineering library each book will be examined to detect its value to the engineer. The books on railroads will naturally be crowded into the technical rather than the economics group even if it is necessary to stretch a point.

The *general library*, which is not providing books for one special type of reader, will distribute its railroad books, shelving some in economics, some in transportation, and some in engineering. When it becomes necessary to choose between such classes, a general library will often be guided by the purpose of the individual book.

The *university library* may be in more of a quandary than the other

two. The departments of economics and engineering may each want the books on railroads for their departmental libraries, whereas the general university library must attempt to serve the reader who is not specializing in either phase of the question but who wants to find these books in one place under transportation. If one group is kept complete, all others must suffer. The sacrifice comes in this case in not finding all the railroad material together on the shelves; instead, the reader must turn to the card catalog to find a listing of all the material on that topic.

5. Some terms with definitions.—The following terms are introduced before beginning a study of a definite group of books:

Broad classification—The grouping of books in classes or divisions without recognizing the more minute subdivisions.

Close classification—An arrangement of subjects in detailed subdivisions under a class or division. Close classification is minute classification.

Division of a subject—Subjects or topics subordinate to a class. For example, the gradation in classification may be expressed as follows:

Class—History
 Division—North America
 Section—United States
 Subsections—Civil War
 (followed by any degree required)

More minute subdivisions may be given in each of these groups as required.

Fixed location—A system of marking and arranging books by shelf and book marks so that their absolute position in a room, or tier, and on the shelves is always the same. This system is almost entirely outmoded.

Flexible classification—A classification which will allow of the intercalation of new subjects without destroying the sequence or logic of arrangement.

Form—The manner in which the text is organized. Such books may have subject value, as a dictionary of music, or they may be literary works in the form of drama, poetry, fiction, etc. Classification schemes provide special divisions and subdivisions for them.

Relative location—An arrangement of books according to their relationship to one another and regardless of the shelves or rooms where they are then placed. Relative location, like a card catalog, admits of indefinite intercalation; the books may be moved to other shelves or rooms without altering the call numbers or disturbing the subject sequence of the group.

II. The Grouping of Architectural Books: A Type Study

In order to give a practical demonstration of how books in one class tend to fall into a natural group arrangement and also to illustrate some of the principles of classification, a special subject has been chosen to be used as a type study. Architecture, a division of the class Fine arts, furnishes good examples from which certain deductions may be made.

Let us assume that we have a collection of a hundred or more books

which are to be thrown into main groups and that a second grouping within the main one may be necessary. By looking first of all for the likenesses in books we shall discover their differences and group them in such a way as to show the gradation of subjects within these groups. Book titles illustrative of the points to be made will be introduced so that the problem may be made as practical as possible. No attempt will be made to conform to any set classification now in use.

1. **First group—General books.**—Such a book is H. H. Statham's *Architecture for general readers* which covers several phases of architecture in a general way. The book is not limited to construction, periods of architecture, types of buildings, or architectural details. It cannot, therefore, be confined within any one subdivision of the main topic; it is merely a general book on architecture.

A book is said to be general when it treats a subject broadly without giving undue emphasis to any one aspect of the subject or when it treats of three or more aspects. This type of book is common to all classes, divisions, and even to some of the subdivisions and sections; therefore, it is a type which must be provided for in any classification plan. Because the contents of general books cover a field inclusively, they are logically placed at the beginning of the large class or division on the shelves. Thus, we begin each large group with the books that give us what we may call a bird's-eye view of the subject.

Form books.—Within this group are architectural dictionaries, manuals, periodicals, essays, historical treatises, etc., which are also general in their treatment but do not constitute a subject subdivision of the large class. It is a convenience to have these form books in their own subgroups, differentiated from the general books but in close proximity to them. By such a plan all architectural dictionaries, for example, will be together on the shelves.

As the subjects for books in these groups are the same as for general works we must seek some other difference which will set them apart, and we find that difference in the form of treatment. Such books organize their material in special ways, rather than in the style of the general treatise; or they may be written to show the history of a subject. A mode of presentation has been adopted to give them a specialized use. For example, dictionaries have been written for ready reference and to answer briefly a multitude of questions; manuals are condensed treatises; periodicals are miscellaneous in content and are useful for recent information. Their use demands that they stand apart from the general books. They are called *form books*.

One of the most important methods of treating a subject is the historical. James Fergusson's *History of architecture in all countries* is a book treating the subject of architecture in such a way as to show its historical

trend. We find in our next book, *The historical monuments of France*, by J. F. Hunnewell, a work written according to the same historical method but limited by place. Now we have two books written in the same form but with the difference that one gives an exposition of the historical trend of architecture in general, and the other presents architectural history as limited to France. All general histories of a subject should stand together and should precede histories of the same subject limited to a special place.

We now have three types of general books: (1) the book which is not limited to any subdivision of architecture, but treats the whole subject broadly; (2) the general book which is limited by form; and (3) the general book which is limited by form and place.

Two subjects in one book.—Another type of book contains two subjects that are treated together. T. P. Bennett's *The relation of sculpture to architecture* illustrates this type. Such a book could be classified either with sculpture or with architecture. The decision whether to place it with one topic or the other may depend on a variety of factors. It might naturally be classified with the first topic mentioned, namely sculpture. On the other hand, it might go with the other books on architecture if it were written from an architectural point of view, or if in a university it must be located in the departmental library of the school of architecture. A book of this type proves at once that the shelves alone will not reveal a library's complete resources in any particular subject, because a book, being an individual unit, can be in only one place even though it treat of two or more subjects.

Similar situations are encountered with books that deal with two aspects of the same subject. A book like W. A. Starrett's *Skyscrapers and the men who build them* is of interest both to the architect and to the construction engineer. The volume cannot be split in order to put one part under Architecture and the other part under Building construction, yet the two aspects are contributions to two groups of equal importance. If the book gives more emphasis and space to the architectural side, then it must be shelved with others in Architecture; but if greater emphasis is given to the work of the building constructor, it will have to stand with other books on building.

This example reveals a pitfall which the classifier must avoid when dealing with subjects or aspects of subjects that are closely related. The classifier must know the difference between the work of the architect and the construction engineer or builder in order to prevent errors in classification. One subject belongs to the general class Fine arts whereas the other is a subdivision of Useful arts, and although the two may be treated in one book, they may also be treated separately.

2. Second group—Architectural details.—The second group becomes

necessary because in sorting the books we find a certain number treating very definitely of architectural details. Many of these volumes consist of drawings and designs showing such details as windows, doors, and arches. These details may be treated as chapters in one book, or a whole book may be given to one topic only, as doors.

Broad versus close classification.—In a case of this kind the classification may be broad or close depending on the size and kind of library. If broad classification is followed, all books on architectural details will be together on the shelves, but all books about doors will not be in a subgroup by themselves. If close classification is adopted, the general books will stand first, followed by the books treating of special details grouped separately.

The very small library that has few books on architecture will find it unnecessary to subdivide them into small groups. The medium-sized library might need only one subgroup into which all books on architectural details will go without further differentiation; while the large library will subdivide farther, providing a subdivision for each specific detail, such as doors, windows, or arches. The special library, limited to books on architecture, may well carry this process still farther and provide not just one number for doors but a series of numbers for the various kinds of doors, such as iron doors, wooden doors, revolving doors, etc.

3. Third group—Styles of architecture.—Such books as *An investigation of the principles of Athenian architecture*, by F. C. Penrose, *Romanesque architecture in France*, edited by Julius Baum, and *A guide to Gothic architecture*, by T. F. Bumpus, make a third group necessary. These books should not be shelved with the books on general architecture; neither should they go with the group on architectural details. They are different because they introduce an entirely new phase of the subject, namely the *style* of architecture. Here a period arrangement seems the most logical to introduce because definite styles were created during certain epochs. The Middle Ages gave us Byzantine, Moorish, Romanesque, Norman, and Gothic architecture, and it is logical that these styles should be studied together. Another division can be made for modern architecture in which we shall find the Renaissance, Baroque, Greek revival, Elizabethan and other types.

By this method of arrangement the reader will find books on these subjects arranged in such an order as to show the historical development of architectural style. He will also be able to see all the books on one style together. The Byzantine group will precede the Romanesque; the Romanesque will precede the Norman and the Gothic, and so on, and each of these divisions will be complete in itself.

Intent of the author.—Considering the book entitled *Romanesque architecture in France*, one is immediately conscious that this will appeal

to two different groups of readers: it will interest the person who is making a study of architecture in France, and it will likewise appeal to the student seeking information about the Romanesque style of architecture.

Should we classify the book with the style of architecture or with the history of architecture in France? In answering this question, the classifier will take into account the intent of the author and also ask himself whether there is more demand for these books from the point of view of style or country. If the author, in his preface or introduction, tells us that he is writing a series of books on architecture in France and that this is one of that series, it may be wise to keep the book with other architectural books treating of France rather than lose the continuity of his series by classifying the book with the style treated. But if the author's intention is to study and interpret the Romanesque style, using the monuments of France merely as an illustration, he has given us a book on *style*. A history of architecture in France would not be limited to one style but would have to include many styles. This illustrates the point made in the second chapter, the value of the preface and introduction to the classifier. The author's idea of the meaning of his book will often point the way to its correct classification.

4. **Fourth group—Special classes of buildings.**—Types of buildings form a fourth group which may be illustrated by such books as *Municipal architecture in Boston*, from designs by E. M. Wheelwright; *Healthy hospitals: observations on some points connected with hospital construction*, by Sir Douglas S. Galton; and *The cathedrals and churches of northern Italy*, by T. F. Bumpus. This group can naturally be subdivided into definite kinds of buildings, such as government buildings, hospitals, and churches. We may go even farther in our subdivisions if necessary and bring individual buildings of a certain place together, such as commercial buildings in New York City; and if we wish to be more specific, we may have a group given up to books treating only of one building, such as the Woolworth building.

The catalog must supplement the classification.—The reader will frequently ask for material on a definite topic, such as an individual building. This type of question is difficult to answer by going directly to the shelves, because the divisions and subdivisions become too numerous and involved to locate so specific a subject easily. Therefore the catalog, having its entries on cards in alphabetical rather than logical arrangement, will answer this kind of question much more quickly than the shelf groups. Such a book will be found listed in the catalog under the topic *Woolworth building*. This direct reference is most useful when one is searching for a specific subject, and it illustrates the great difference between a logical group arrangement of books and the simple alphabetical arrangement of entries in a card catalog. The logical arrangement of our shelves

allows us to survey a whole field of knowledge; while the alphabetical catalog, discarding logic, allows us to make a direct approach to the one thing we have in mind, regardless of its place in any logical scheme.

Subject versus regional classification.—Some classifiers prefer to class books on individual buildings with Local history. Thus the book on the Woolworth building would stand on the shelves with other books descriptive of New York City. Such an arrangement makes the collection of books about New York City more complete although the Architecture shelves are then less complete. Consideration must be given not only to the value of an individual book, but also to the value of the relative location of a group of books. In the architectural library there is no question; but in a general library the same book might be more useful if classed with other books on New York City. On the other hand, a compromise plan might be adopted whereby some of the books might be classified in Architecture and some with Local history. Those that are concerned primarily with architectural plans and designs would then be separated from those that are general descriptions or histories. *Use* should determine the policy to be followed in a case like this.

5. Fifth group—Architectural design and decoration.—When we find two books such as (1) Bankart's *Art of the plasterer; an account of the decorative development of the craft* and (2) Colling's *Examples of English mediæval foliage and coloured decoration, taken from buildings of the twelfth to the fifteenth century*, we can see that another group is necessary. These books are limited to the subject of decoration and consider problems of construction, style, or historical development only as they deal with decoration applied to buildings.

Classify by application.—These books fall into a group which we shall call architectural design and decoration. They treat a definite subject in its application to another definite subject. It is decoration limited to architectural ornamentation. On the other hand, design and decoration are subjects that have a bearing on many other forms of art. Thus, there are books on interior decoration which treat the subject quite apart from any architectural bearing. Such books discuss furniture, carpets, tapestries, wall paper, and all the movable ornaments which serve to decorate the house after it has been constructed. Decoration from the architectural point of view is fixed; it is a part of the permanent structure, as decoration of ceilings, window tracery, decorative brick and terra cotta, woodwork, or ironwork. This subdivision of Architecture shows that one must know subjects to the extent of realizing how the application may determine their logical grouping.

6. Sixth group—Miscellaneous.—Some books always baffle the classifier. Either they do not seem to fit into any one of the natural groups, or they treat the subject from such a highly specialized standpoint that one

is puzzled to know just where the book will be most useful. The main subject may be architecture, but the author's method of treatment may make its grouping difficult.

H. H. Statham's *Architecture among the poets* is a book of this kind. It is a collection of quotations containing allusions to architecture, selected from English poetry, with a commentary by Mr. Statham, a writer on architectural subjects. Should the volume appear on our shelves with other books on English poetry, or should it take its place with architectural books? The book was evidently compiled for the architect, and its interest is centered on architecture; therefore, if we follow the rule to consider subject before form, the book would be classified with others on architecture. The fact that the compiler added his comments gives another reason for classifying the book here.

It is impossible to formulate definite rules for classifying books of this type. One must use his judgment after considering the subject treated, the intent of the author, the form in which the subject has been presented, and, above all, its probable use to the reader.

7. Seventh group—Books for special classes of readers—

Children's books.—Books written for children may be classified broadly by the same scheme that is used for the regular collection, but since they are to be used by an entirely different class of readers, they should be shelved separately. These books should receive a symbol, such as *J* prefixed to the class number, by which they may be distinguished from books written for adults.

Books for the blind.—Books in embossed type for the blind are of use to only a very definite class of readers. They may be classified by the same system as that used for the general book collection but are better shelved apart from the printed books.

Books for other groups.—Here we shall consider books adapted for the use of special professional groups, or for classes of people, such as women, foreigners, etc.

A work on mathematics for architects will illustrate the first type. Here the author treats his subject with a special group of readers in mind, limiting the treatment of mathematics to the needs of the architect. This very limitation will tend to take the book out of the mathematics group so that it will then be shelved with other books on architecture. If a subject is limited to its special application, its use shifts from the main subject to its application because, as in this instance, the whole subject cannot be treated in a book prepared for one type of reader. The architect, for example, will find in this book the essential mathematical material for use in his own profession, but the mathematician who has no special interest in architecture will not be satisfied. The same reasoning may be followed in classifying such a book as *Architecture as a profession for*

women. Here the subject of architecture is not definitely covered; the topic treated is woman's adaptability to a certain kind of work and the aptitude she must possess to follow this profession. The volume must, therefore, take its place with others treating of vocations for women.

8. Summary.—The result of this type study has revealed: (1) that books lend themselves to subject arrangement; (2) that even a small group, like Architecture, may have at least six major subdivisions; (3) that these subdivisions may be divided again into smaller groups; (4) that certain rules may be formulated for arranging books so that similar kinds will fall together; (5) that related books may be classed in close proximity; and (6) that books, when systematically arranged, may be used comparatively.

The student has, through this study of one small topic, doubtless become conscious of what it would mean if the librarian were forced to work out, without any definite guide, a plan for the arrangement of books in a library covering all fields of knowledge. Such a colossal task would discourage many from attempting to fathom the subject of book arrangement or classification. Fortunately this is not necessary; such schemes have already been prepared and it only remains for the student to study a definite system of classification and learn how to apply it to his own needs.

References

References covering this chapter are listed at the end of Chapters IV and V.

Some Practical Questions

1. Summarize, in the form of rules for classifying, the points covered by the type study in this chapter.
2. Explain why in an unclassified library books would have to be classified every time a reader wanted to use them.
3. What is the advantage of classification in an open-shelf room?
4. What is the advantage of having general books arranged before books treating of specific topics of the same subject?
5. Think of some book you have read recently and explain under how many and what subjects it would be valuable to the reader.
6. What is the advantage of having children's books segregated from those for adults?
7. Would your policy be to adopt a close or broad classification for a small library?
8. Show the divisions and subdivisions of any one of the following subjects, arranging them to show gradation of subjects. Do not consult a definite system of classification, but use any general books or bibliographies on these subjects:

Indians of North America

Labor

Sports

IV

A Classification Schedule and The Decimal Classification

- | | |
|---|--|
| I. A Classification Schedule. Notation | 3. Notation. Analysis of numbers |
| 1. Definition | 4. Relative index |
| 2. Notation | 5. Application of Dewey to books on architecture: a type study |
| 3. Limitations of a schedule | 6. Variations in some of the main classes |
| 4. Working with a schedule | 7. Points to observe in the schedule |
| 5. Value of the schedule to staff and readers | 8. Editions |
| 6. Points stressed in a classification system | 9. Universal decimal classification |
| II. The Decimal Classification | 10. Dewey numbers on L. C. cards and in Sears' <i>List of subject headings</i> |
| 1. Growth and acceptance | |
| 2. Plan | |

I. A Classification Schedule. Notation

In the last chapter it was seen how a collection of books can be arranged in groups or classes. If these groups were worked out systematically, they could be converted into a classification scheme but not until a series of symbols had been developed to represent each class. The next step, then, is to examine a classification schedule, to see how it should function for the classification of books in a library, and to discover a convenient set of symbols to be used in conjunction with it.

1. **Definition.**—A system for the classification of books is a schedule which maps out the fields of knowledge in ways that are suitable for library purposes; main classes are followed by divisions and subdivisions of these classes; and the gradation of subjects is so arranged that specific subjects grow out of general subjects.

2. **Notation.**—The symbol which stands for the classes and their subdivisions is called the notation of that scheme; or, as Sayers has defined it, "A book-notation. . . is a shorthand sign standing for the name of a term, and forming a convenient means of reference to the arrangement of our classification."¹

Notation is an important *addition* to any classification schedule; it has

¹ W. C. B. Sayers, *A manual of classification for librarians and bibliographers* (London: Grafton, 1926), p.87.

in no way determined its logic, scope or development. It furnishes only a convenient symbol for arrangement. The symbol is not assigned until after the schedule has been worked out and has no more bearing on the preparation or the logic of a classification than the chapter numbers of a book have had in fixing the themes of those chapters.

In most book classifications the notation is a symbol that stands for either the subject of the book or the style of writing. Since the notation is a sign translation of the classification, it usually insures, when it is added to the backs of books, a book arrangement which repeats the order of the schedule.

Pure notation—The notation is called pure if one consistent kind of symbol, such as figures alone or letters alone, is used.

Mixed notation—The notation is called mixed if two or more kinds of symbols are used, such as letters and figures.

Flexible notation—Notation is flexible when it expands with the classification. Since provision must be made for the addition of volumes to any class, the symbol for marking these must be on a sliding scale. A decimal notation is a flexible notation.

3. *Limitations of a schedule.*—Any printed classification schedule will have its limitations. A schedule made twenty years ago does not provide a place for classifying many of the books of today. New ideas, discoveries, and inventions have changed the point of view of writers. Libraries contain the old and the new; they show, through books, subjects in all their changes. These changes may affect the classification scheme greatly, as, for example, when subjects shift from one field of knowledge to another. This was the case with aeronautics, which not so many years ago was a branch of physics but which today takes its place as an applied science. Not only must aviation have a major place in the applied science group, but a new subdivision must be made in the transportation group for books about traveling by air, a subject hardly thought of when the first American system of classification was prepared.

Special changes create new uses for books, and a different method of approach demands a different grouping of subjects. Books which combine ethics with sports and handwork with ideals are now written for Boy Scouts. This is a new blending of subjects for the classifier to deal with, and yet no maker of a classification system could foresee such a problem.

Mr. Dewey, the genius who created the first American plan of classification to receive any universal recognition, said in 1876:

✓ Long study of the subject makes it clear that a classification satisfactory in *theory* is, in the nature of things, an impossibility, and that a scheme can be satisfactory in *use* only to those who realize these inherent difficulties and are satisfied because

of their knowledge that a plan free from annoying difficulties is wholly unattainable.²

In approaching a classification scheme, one must keep this fact in mind and not expect the impossible. The uninitiated frequently feel that they can improve a scheme by changing certain group arrangements, making additions here or canceling there, but such hopeful aspirants should be discouraged. A distorted system is quite as bad as or worse than no system at all. One change made in a plan in which logic is the basic principle may throw the whole scheme into disorder. If, on the other hand, the plan provides for expansion (and any good system will be built with this as one of its important features), the skilled classifier can add new subjects, such as are opened up by current books, to their proper divisions and keep the system up to date. To do this requires a knowledge of subjects as well as a conception of some of the underlying principles of classification.

Miss Kelley in *The classification of books*,³ says: "To insert or not to insert new numbers, to expand or not to expand the tables when in dire need, those are the questions"; and she goes on to say: "Few librarians have sufficient knowledge to organize a whole field of knowledge which would be necessary before individual subjects can be placed in satisfactory relationship with other subjects. Furthermore, once such changes are made and used, the adoption of the more official expansions which appear from time to time is precluded."

To build an entirely original system for the classification of books is quite out of the question, unless one be a Bacon, a Spencer, or a Dewey. It is also a very expensive and tedious task to change from one classification to another, and the service to the readers will inevitably suffer during such a transition. In fact, the change is so serious that few librarians have either the money or the courage to attempt it. It is therefore incumbent on every new library, even the smallest, to give much consideration to the system to be adopted. A small library today may be a large one tomorrow, and the classification base must be broad enough to allow for the developments of many years. It is always possible to begin with large groups, as we saw in arranging the Architecture group, and subdivide as the collection increases in size, but the foundation of any plan must be one which will require as few changes as possible with the growth of the library.

4. Working with a schedule.—A classification schedule will display the entire field of human knowledge with such clarity that one may see subjects in their relative values. It will show the extent of subjects, their varying aspects, their interrelation, their sequence and their gradation. It

² Melvil Dewey, "The Amherst classification," *Library Journal*, III (August 1878), 231-32.

³ G. O. Kelley, *The classification of books; an inquiry into its usefulness to the reader* (N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1937), p.79.

will offer innumerable suggestions when one is studying subjects and their relationships.

The classifier must grasp the final intent of the author of each book and give to each its proper location in the book collection the library is building. The act of classification involves matching the book and the classification schedule. The schedule functions only after the classifier has determined the *subject* of the book. Therefore, the method of classifying must be to work from the book to the classification system and not vice versa. The schedule can aid the classifier, but it cannot classify the book.

5. Value of the schedule to staff and readers.—A knowledge of the classification schedule is necessary not to the classifier alone, but to all who work in a library. Since its order is the order of the books on the shelves, no one can use the books effectively unless he knows how to use this key.

It opens up a great vista by which the librarian can survey his book resources. He can see the possibilities for the development of his book collection, the balance to be kept, and the weakness and strength of certain classes. He will be reminded of gaps which need to be filled and of overcrowded classes which need to be weeded. Through a study of a definite classification system he will discover a means of thinking in terms of order and system.

A classification schedule has real value to others than those who serve in a library, in furnishing facts, suggestions, and subject outlines, and in helping to classify information. The student who is preparing a theme or thesis may often find his subject outlined in the classification schedule. In the literature schedules he may find an outline of the literary movements in various countries with a list of the important writers in each epoch. In the history schedule there may be found a chronological outline of the history of each country with dates and a list of important events. A student wanting an outline of the principal events in the Civil War, for example, will find an excellent outline under the American history group in the Decimal classification, and the Library of Congress scheme for History is a compendium of exact information. Those studying library science will find a very satisfactory review of their courses in the 020 classification in Dewey and in the Z classification of the Library of Congress scheme.

6. Points stressed in a classification system.—A summary of the points that a classification system should stress may be stated in this way:

1. It should be systematic, proceeding from the general to the special.
2. It should be as complete as possible, that is, cover the entire field of a subject.
3. It should be sufficiently detailed to represent all degrees of generality.
4. It should allow for the combination of ideas and for classifying from several points of view.
5. It should be logical, that is, show a sequence of ideas.

6. It should be explicit, but concise.
7. It should furnish a notation easy to write and to remember, which shall serve as a symbol for the books and determine their arrangement on the shelves.
8. It should be expansive and flexible in both plan and notation.
9. It should furnish a class for general books, and also provide for books treating subjects in any class or divisions of classes in a general way.
10. It should have an alphabetic index to facilitate its use.
11. It should be printed in a form which will give one a quick survey of the field covered by the system.

II. The Decimal Classification

1. **Growth and acceptance.**—Melvil Dewey, the author of the Decimal classification, was a student at Amherst College in 1873 when he conceived the idea of building a classification scheme for the arrangement of subjects dealt with in books. The first edition of his Decimal classification was printed in 1876 with a total of 42 pages in an edition of 1000 copies. The system since 1876 has been extended and perfected by many editions, and, aided by a great number of specialists in the various sciences, has been increased by adding many new subjects. The sixth edition, issued in 1899, had grown to 511 pages; the fourteenth edition, printed in 1942, is a volume of 1927 pages.

The system was quickly accepted and is now in use in most of the school and public libraries in the United States, in some of the large reference libraries, notably the John Crerar Library in Chicago, and in many college and university libraries. It has also been adopted in many foreign countries. The American Library Association has adopted it for *The Booklist*, and for classifying the books in the *A.L.A. catalog*. The Decimal classification was also followed (except in the 600's where the Brussels expansion was used) in the classified catalog of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.⁴ This book catalog is suggestive to the classifier not only because it contains modern titles and Decimal classification numbers, but also because the titles are annotated. Annotations are a valuable aid in explaining the contents of a book and may serve to justify its classification.

2. **Plan.**—A copy of the Decimal classification scheme should be before the student to elucidate this explanation. Before studying the book, however, he should notice the use of "simplified" spelling. The index to the fourteenth edition uses standard English spelling but the rest of the book employs simplified spelling.

Tables.—The system is made graphic by a series of summary tables used to show the step-by-step development of classes from the general to the more specific subject.

⁴ Pittsburgh. Carnegie Library. *Classified catalogue of the Carnegie library of Pittsburgh, 1895-1916* (Pittsburgh, 1907-26), 21v.

The first table gives the ten large classes into which the Decimal system divides the field of knowledge. These are:

General works	000
Philosophy	100
Religion	200
Social sciences	300
Philology	400
Pure science	500
Useful arts, applied science	600
Fine arts	700
Literature, <i>belles-lettres</i>	800
History, biography	900

The second summary gives the ten "divisions" in each of these ten classes. The third summary,⁵ composed of ten tables, gives the "sections" under each of the ten divisions. Next are the complete tables, including all the classes, divisions, sections, and subsections. The subjects in the first table form the base for the whole scheme. Therefore, any book must belong in one of these groups, but it may ultimately be located in a very small subsection within that group.

SECOND SUMMARY TABLE SHOWING DIVISIONS OF THE TEN MAIN CLASSES

000 General works	250 Homiletics
010 Bibliography	260 The church
020 Library science	270 Church history
030 General encyclopedias	280 Denominations
040 General collected essays	290 Non-Christian religions
050 General periodicals	300 Social sciences
060 General societies, museums	310 Statistics
070 Journalism, newspapers	320 Political science
080 Polygraphy, general collections	330 Economics
090 Rare books	340 Law
100 Philosophy	350 Administration
110 Metaphysics	360 Associations and institutions
120 Special metaphysical topics	370 Education
130 Mind and body	380 Commerce, communication
140 Philosophical systems	390 Manners and customs
150 Psychology	400 Philology
160 Logic	410 Comparative philology
170 Ethics	420 English
180 Ancient and medieval philosophy	430 German
	440 French
190 Modern philosophy	450 Italian
200 Religion	460 Spanish, Portuguese
210 Natural theology	470 Latin
220 Bible	480 Greek
230 Doctrinal theology	490 Other languages
240 Devotional literature	500 Pure science

⁵ See p.[71]-[80] of the fourteenth edition of Dewey.

510	Mathematics	760	Engraving
520	Astronomy	770	Photography
530	Physics	780	Music
540	Chemistry	790	Amusements
550	Geology	800	Literature
560	Paleontology	810	American
570	Biology, anthropology	820	English
580	Botany	830	German
590	Zoölogy	840	French
600	Useful arts	850	Italian
610	Medicine	860	Spanish, Portuguese
620	Engineering	870	Latin
630	Agriculture	880	Greek
640	Home economics	890	Other literatures
650	Communication, business	900	History
660	Chemical technology	910	Geography, description and travel
670	Manufactures	920	Biography
680	Trades	930	Ancient history
690	Building	940	Europe
700	Fine arts, amusements	950	Asia
710	Landscape gardening	960	Africa
720	Architecture	970	North America
730	Sculpture	980	South America
740	Drawing, decoration, design	990	Oceania and the polar regions
750	Painting		

General works are provided for in each class, division, section, and subsection if necessary. Thus a book treating of arithmetic, algebra, and geometry would be classified as 510 Mathematics, but should another book treat of geometry alone, it would be a general book limited to that subject and be classified in 513 Geometry. A book on conic sections, which is a division of Geometry, would classify in 513.22. This is again a general work because it can be subdivided into 513.23 Ellipse, 513.24 Hyperbola, and 513.25 Parabola. Books in these three numbers, belonging to subjects that cannot well be subdivided, may be called specific.

Form divisions.—Nine divisions, usually called form divisions, are common to all classes and to many divisions. These vary only as the subject may necessitate a different application. A full expansion of these form numbers is given in Table 2 at the end of the fourteenth edition of the Decimal classification. Since these numbers recur under the various classes, the main forms are here defined and their use explained.

01 Theory

An exposition of the subject treated from the theoretical, philosophical, or psychological point of view, such as R. M. Ogden has used in his book *The psychology of art*, 701.

02 Compends, manuals, outlines

A subject treated briefly, or in outline only, as *Epitome of ancient, medieval and modern history*, compiled by Carl Ploetz, which takes the number 902.

03 Dictionaries, encyclopedias

The subject treated in brief, through definitions, or more broadly in a panoramic style. This form number is illustrated by the *Dictionary of architecture*, edited by Russell Sturgis, which goes in 720.3.

04 Essays, lectures

A book in which the subject is treated in detached chapters rather than as a continuous treatise, such as Brander Matthews' *Essays on English*, which is classified in 420.4.

05 Periodicals

Serial publications of a literary nature or in which the subject is treated in articles, papers, etc. *The Architectural record*, 720.5, illustrates this. Periodicals not limited to subject, as the *Atlantic monthly*, are classified in 050.

06 Societies

The official publications of societies, such as reports and proceedings, as the *Transactions* of the Royal Institute of British Architects, 720.6. General learned societies are classified in 060.

07 Study and teaching

Books on how to study and how to teach a subject—that is, methods of studying and teaching—such as R. M. Pearson's *The new art education*, 707. Text-books are not classified here, but with the general class or as 02 (as, for example, in 530.2).

08 Polygraphy, collections

Books very miscellaneous in style and treatment, anthologies, chrestomathies, or collected works of an author when it is desirable to keep these together. "The Harvard Classics" would go in 080 and *The Oxford book of English verse* in 821.08. This form number has been interpreted to include special collections in some of the classes; e.g., 608 has been used for patents and 708 for art galleries and museums.

09 History

Books in which the history of the subject is told, such as Fletcher's *History of architecture*, 720.9. This form number can be divided geographically, and is used not only for the history of a subject, but also for the local consideration of a subject, even when descriptive rather than historical.

Study the subjects included under classes.—In learning the first ten classes into which Dewey divides all knowledge, the student becomes familiar with the main class in which every book must be located, but this is only the beginning. The ramifications come later when the system spreads out in innumerable lines that test his ability to follow the intricacies of the subdivisions, and keep the main thread of the step-by-step procedure from the classes through the divisions, subdivisions, and sections.

Accordingly, the student needs to be thoroughly familiar with the classification scheme before he attempts to use it. In classifying books attention has to be focused on appreciating their subject value; attention must not be diverted to finding a way through an unfamiliar schedule. Hence, each of the ten main classes must be carefully scrutinized, so that the classifier

may become familiar with the topics in each and may form some idea of the importance of related topics within each main class and within the scheme as a whole.

3. Notation. Analysis of numbers.—In the Decimal classification we are confronted with a system which has a symbol so commonly known that its meaning can be easily translated. By accepting arabic figures and using them as whole numbers and decimals we get a pure notation and one in which the numbers expand with the subjects. This gives a comparatively short symbol for general books that lengthens with the subdivisions of subjects.

EXAMPLE I.	700	.	.	Fine arts
	720	.	.	Architecture
	721	.	.	Architectural construction
	721.8	.	.	Openings and their fittings
	721.81	.	.	Doors
EXAMPLE II.	331	.	.	Labor and laborers
	331.1	.	.	Relations of capital and labor
	331.11	.	.	Labor contracts in general
	331.113	.	.	Classification of work and workers

Broad classification should not be allowed to affect the meaning of the third figure of the classification number. For example, if a library has only a few books on architecture they should not for that reason be placed in a single group 720, but should be distributed under 721, 722, 723, etc., according to their contents. These numbers are no longer than 720, but they have a more specific meaning. Also, when a collection grows to the point of needing subdivisions, the expansion can be accomplished by merely adding decimals to 721, 722, etc.; whereas if these books are numbered 720, the third figure would also need to be changed.

The Decimal classification possesses the important advantage that a small library can use it to classify broadly, using short numbers, and, as the library grows, can classify more and more closely by merely adding figures taken from the full tables. Also, a library can classify broadly, with short numbers, for subjects on which it has few books, and can classify more closely, to any degree desired, for subjects in which it has enough books to make closer classification advisable.

The notation in Dewey is as simple as can be expected. Figures are easy to write and to remember. They have a universal meaning and therefore do not limit the classification scheme to the use of any one language or nationality. Words in an index in French, German, Italian, or any other language refer to the same number, and the subject is quickly located, as for example:

Atmospheric electricity	537.4
Electricité atmosphérique	537.4
Luftelektrizität	537.4

The arrangement of numbers on the shelves is strictly by the decimal system. The filing is digit by digit, not by whole numbers. Thus, 721 and all its decimals precede 722 and all its decimals, and so on:

720
721
721.1
721.2
721.27
721.3
722
722.1
723

It will be noted that zero has its normal value. Hence, the number 720 is class 7, division 2, but no section; i.e., it relates to division 72 in general. However, the zero is always added after the first two figures of a general number and is used in its full significance, e.g., 720, not 72.⁶

Memory features or mnemonics.—The memory feature in the notation is an asset to the system. Each of the ten digits, as these are used to designate the ten main classes, appears as the first figure in the number for its own class. A person interested in art, for example, soon learns that all the material on that subject is in the 700's. He can therefore go directly to this large class on the shelves as soon as he knows the first figure for it. After the first figure he will find it is easy to memorize the second. Hence, the person who wishes books on architecture and knows that all books in this division are shelved in the 720's can immediately find the books relating to that subject.

Sayers defines mnemonic characteristics as "the use of symbols in such manner that they have a more or less constant meaning when applied anywhere in the scheme."⁷ While mnemonic features appear in many classes of the D. C.,⁸ they are especially useful in 400 Philology, 800 Literature, and 900 History. Thus the figure two stands for England in each of the following numbers: 420 English language, 820 English literature, and 942 English history. Also form divisions and subdivisions provide a memory device, as, for example, the number 05 for periodicals in 050, 105, and 331.05.

Analysis of numbers.—As every digit stands for a class, division, section, etc., each number can be analyzed after it is chosen to prove its accuracy. For instance, the number for doors is 721.81 and may be analyzed as in Example 1 on page 52.

If, by an error in copying, the student should write this number as 721.71 and should then analyze it, he would find:

⁶ The exception to this rule is 920, which in some libraries is written as 92.

⁷ W. C. B. Sayers, *Introduction to library classification* (2d ed.; London: Grafton, 1922), p. 76.

⁸ D. C. will frequently be used for Decimal classification.

700	Fine arts	
20	Architecture	1
1	Architectural construction	
.7	Ceilings	
1	Wood	
<hr/>						
721.71	Wood ceilings	

By this method of analysis the error would be caught the moment the fourth figure is reached.

A mistake made in copying numbers is very serious because it means that all books, records, and catalog cards will bear the incorrect mark, and, what is far more serious, the book will probably be shelved with a class to which it bears no relation. This habit of analyzing the number after it is copied will save the classifier from many an embarrassing blunder.

4. Relative index.—There are naturally many subjects which cannot be quickly located in the tables, since the librarian cannot possibly know their logical place in the scheme. An alphabetical index to the Decimal classification has been added at the end of the scheme to obviate this difficulty.

The index attempts to include topics found in the complete tables, together with many corresponding synonyms. It does not include names of countries, towns, animals, plants, etc., except when these are mentioned in the tables. The reference is not to a definite page but to the class number.

The index is relative in the sense that each phase of a subject is noted. If a topic is treated in two or more classes, the number it takes in each group is given. The following extract will illustrate the plan:

Dueling	
criminal law	343
ethics	179.7
legal antiquities	340.3
military life	355.132
social customs	394.8
student life	371.82

The search for a number may be made by turning directly to the relative index, or by turning to an appropriate schedule and looking for the topic in the place where, according to the theory of the system, it should be. The latter is the sound and sure method, though it may be laborious and time consuming.

The use of this index is not limited to locating topics in the tables; it has equal value in locating topics on the shelves, and is in fact the reader's key to the shelf arrangement in every library in which the Dewey system is used. If a reader wishes to study the adulteration of drugs, for example,

He looks up this topic in the index, where he finds the number 614.35. He then has only to go to the shelves where the books marked with this number are to be found.

5. *Application of Dewey to books on architecture: a type study.*—Having taken a rapid survey of the plan of this system, the student will find it interesting to go back to the tables and see how the architectural books, which were grouped in the previous chapter without any specific system in mind, will fit into the Decimal classification.

a) *General works.*—In the large class 700, which is Fine arts, Architecture is one of the ten main divisions, and to it the number 720 has been assigned. This number has been reserved for general books. Our next question is to locate the architectural dictionaries and other *form* books.

b) *Form divisions.*—The note under the general heading Architecture introduces nine subdivisions that provide for the arrangement of books according to form of treatment, and the architectural dictionary takes the number 720.3.

c) *Subjects divided by locality.*—Can the book *Historical monuments of France* be classified logically with other histories of architecture in France? The phrase "Divided geographically like 940-999" found after the form number .9 under 720 gives us this opportunity. Taking the number 720.9, we find that the 9 (meaning History) is already a part of the number; so by adding 44 (France) we have 720.944, which is the history of architecture in France.

d) *Architectural details.*—The second architectural group we called architectural details because the books treated the details which go to make up a building. Books covering this subject must be classified either in 721 Architectural construction, or in 729 Architectural design and decoration. If we peruse the section 721, we find our books in accord with the topics included here. A subsection is given to books dealing with doors, gates, grilles, and windows. This number is 721.8. This has again been subdivided to provide for wooden doors 721.81, glass doors 721.826, etc.

e) *Styles of architecture.*—The third group, styles of architecture, is treated in Dewey under three sections: 722 Ancient and Oriental architecture; 723 Medieval, Christian, and Mohammedan; and 724 Modern. By this arrangement the books on style will be arranged first by period and second by style. A book treating several styles in any of these periods would probably take the number 722. This is an exception to the rule, which can be generally followed, of classifying a book treating subjects included in two or three divisions or subsections of the D. C. in the number for the large group embracing these subjects.

f) *Special classes of buildings.*—These make up our fourth group of books. Dewey has included classes of buildings under four divisions with the numbers 725, 726, 727, and 728. These have been subdivided again, making it possible to classify more closely if desirable.

Wheelwright's *Municipal architecture in Boston* will take the number 725.1. This number is satisfactory only in part. If the library wishes to have all the books on municipal architecture together, regardless of city, the number is satisfactory; but if there is need to keep all the municipal buildings of Boston, Chicago, or

New York grouped by these cities, the number does not answer the demand. The large library would probably want to subdivide by place (725.10974461), but the average and the small library would certainly not think of using so long a number.

Sir Douglas Galton's *Healthy hospitals* takes the number 725.5. Hospitals are here considered as a subdivision of public buildings. Management and government of a hospital would be classified in 362. The student should consult the relative index under the word *Hospitals* to see the various phases of this subject.

The book by T. F. Bumpus, *The cathedrals and churches of northern Italy*, takes the number 726, and furnishes a good example of the difficulty of trying to classify a book from its title. In this case, should the librarian want to separate church architecture from cathedral architecture, it would be necessary for him to examine the book carefully. As a matter of fact, only large libraries would find it necessary to divide the books on ecclesiastical and religious architecture by types. The average library would use 726 for all such books, since the group will be comparatively small.

The item about the Woolworth building would take the number 725.23097471 if very close classification were to be followed. Should it be desirable to classify this book with others descriptive of New York City, the number would become 917.471.

g) *Miscellaneous books*.—Here we encounter the limitations which are to be met in any classification scheme. *Architecture among the poets* can be classified with the general books on architecture, 720 or 720.88. An alternative is to classify it with anthologies of English poetry in 821.08. *Mathematics for architects* goes in the general number 720 unless we give it the form number for manuals 720.2. *Architecture as a profession for women* will fall in the class 396.5 or, following the note under this number, we may classify it more closely and use 396.572. When a number ending in zero is added to another number, the zero is always dropped; thus, instead of 396.5720, we use 396.572.

6. Variations in some of the main classes—

General works 000.—The zeros provide for books too general to be limited to any one of the other nine classes. Some subjects, such as 020 Library science, 069 Museums, 070 Journalism, and 090 Rare books, are included along with classes for many form books. It will be noted that many of the forms given here as major topics become form divisions and form subdivisions elsewhere in the classification.

Library science students will be interested in following the subdivisions given under 010 Bibliography and 020 Library science.

Philology 400.—Form divisions are used in 401-409 according to regular Dewey usage. Under 410 we find the subdivisions common to all languages; these apply to the general, comparative, and historical study of languages. Following this, provision is made for dividing various languages by the standard topics: spelling, etymology, dictionaries, synonyms, grammar, prosody, dialects, and texts for learning the language. 420 English language is the only division worked out on this basis. To build up the numbers in 430-499, the classifier must turn back to the 420's for

the adjustment of the notation. Thus the number for a German grammar 435 is formed by borrowing the 5 from 425 English grammar and adding it to 430, the only number given in the schedules for the German language. The subdivisions under English language accordingly constitute a mnemonic feature, since the third figure in each language number always stands for the same topic.

The second figure of the language numbers represents a mnemonic feature of wider application. These figures are used elsewhere in the scheme where subdivision by language or literature is desired. They are to be found particularly in the zeros and the 800's. The student should also notice their similarity to the country numbers in the 900's.

The caption for 428 is somewhat broad. The class really consists of elementary texts for learning the language. Some libraries may prefer to classify these books in the 370's; normal schools may find that more convenient. The note under 428 "For other works see literature of the language, 820" refers to books concerned with the philological study of an author's writings. Edwin A. Abbott's *Shakespearean grammar* illustrates the kind of book that most libraries would prefer to classify in Literature rather than in 428.8.

The student should examine the language numbers in 490-499 since these are used in forming numbers in the 890's.

Literature 800.—Miss Pettee, in Merrill's *Code for classifiers*, states the limitations of the Literature class in this way:

As a general rule, a work of prose, whatever its claims to literary style, if it can be classed under a specific topic, has no place in literature. This restricts the class literature to (1) Literary criticism, (2) literary history and biography, and (3) works of the imagination that fall under the various literary forms,—fiction, poetry, prose, etc.⁹

The Decimal classification provides for these two distinct types of material, books about literature and works of literature. In the first group the subject is paramount, but in the second the author is the important consideration. Both these types require a primary arrangement by language or nationality.

(1) **BOOKS ABOUT LITERATURE.**—Books which deal with the subject of general literature, that is, literature not limited by language, such as English, French, etc., are classified in 800-809 where the usual form divisions determine the second grouping. These same form numbers may be used for the literature of any country, as 820.9 for the history of English literature or 830.7 for the study and teaching of German literature. Probably the most used of these form divisions are 8 Collections and 9 History.

(2) **COLLECTIONS.**—Books which are classified in Literature as col-

⁹W. S. Merrill, *Code for classifiers* (2d ed.; Chicago: A.L.A., 1939), p.118.

lections are not subject books, but are compilations of the works of several authors. Thus a collection, which is a book of literature, is classified between books about literature, since it falls between 7 Study and teaching and 9 History. The student should examine the groups under 808 carefully.

(3) HISTORY AND CRITICISM.—Literary history and criticism take the form number 9. On the other hand, criticism of an individual author is classified with his works: e.g., a criticism of Tennyson would be classified where his poetry is.

A cross-section of the class may be described by an illustration. Essays will be used:

- 804 Essays about literature in general, e.g., Brander Matthews' *The historical novel, and other essays*
- 808.4 On the technique of essay writing, e.g., Norman Foerster's *Outlines and summaries; a handbook for the analysis of expository essays*
- 808.84 Collections of essays taken from various literatures, e.g., D. J. Brewer's *The world's best essays*
- 820.4 Essays about English literature, e.g., Frederic Harrison's *Studies in early Victorian literature*
- 824 An essay or essays not limited to any subject, written by an English author, e.g., Thomas Carlyle's *Critical and miscellaneous essays*

It may be well to repeat here that essays contributing to a definite subject are classified in that subject, not in Literature. For example, a collection of philological essays would be classified in 404.

(4) INDIVIDUAL AUTHORS.—The D. C. provides for a period division under forms of literature, and within these periods a place is assigned to the most prominent authors of the 'me.

The most common modification made by libraries using the D. C. is to disregard the period divisions and arrange the works of individual authors alphabetically under each form of literature. This gives the following main groupings:

- Languages
- Forms of literature
- Authors (individual works)

(5) NATIONALITY OF THE AUTHOR.—Since nationality is the keynote of this class, it follows that the classifier must know the nationality of an author before he can classify that author's works. This often means searching in biographical dictionaries, book reviews, and other reference books.

Another modification frequently adopted by public libraries is the filing of American and English literature together. 810 and its subdivisions may

be disregarded entirely, or 810 may be kept for works about American literature only.

(6) FICTION.—In fiction also we have books about this form of literature as well as the novels themselves. The great majority of libraries arrange American and English fiction alphabetically by author combined in one file without a class number; the designation used on the label is usually *F* (Fiction), or if book numbers are used, the *F* may be omitted. If this plan is adopted the number 823 can be used for books about American and English fiction.

In some public libraries fiction printed in foreign languages is classified with the literature of that language. For example, German fiction is classified in 833 and is arranged alphabetically by author; French fiction is classified in 843, and Italian in 853. Fiction translated into a foreign language may be classified with the literature into which it is translated. For example, a copy of *Robinson Crusoe* printed in French could be classified with French fiction in 843. Other libraries prefer to use a language symbol in place of the class number, as *F* for French, and thus reserve the number 843 for books about fiction.

Foreign fiction translated into English is usually shelved in a public library with other fiction in the English language. A translation of Dumas into English, for example, would take its place with English fiction. This may seem illogical, but here again use makes such an arrangement desirable. The English reader does not want to be deprived of reading good translations and will want to find them with fiction in English. The catalog will, of course, contain an author card for each book no matter in what language it is written. By this means the reader can see just what translations of a definite author are in the library. In other words, the catalog supplements the classification in this case.

In university libraries all editions of fiction are usually shelved together and are arranged under the original language. All copies of Dumas would be classified in 843 no matter what might be the language of the text.

(7) TRANSLATIONS OF NONFICTION.—In general it is most useful to have the translations of all nonfiction that classifies in Literature stand with the original work. This scheme brings all editions of the same work together, regardless of the language of the text. To accomplish this the cataloger must always take the book number from the name of the author of the original work. An exception is made to this plan if the class number already stands for that author. For example, in the case of 883.1 the class number means Homer. Here a special scheme may be used to avoid duplicating the class mark in the book number.

(8) BOOKS FOR FOREIGNERS.—Public libraries buying books for the use of the foreign born may want to classify all these volumes by language. This can be done in any of three ways: (1) by choosing the broad Lan-

guage number (as 491.7 Russian) regardless of subject; (2) by using the Literature number instead of the Language number (as 891.7 for Russian); or (3) by classifying under subject just as other books are classified, but prefixing a letter designating the language before the class number, as Y540 for a general chemistry written in Yiddish. If capital letters have already been used as prefixes, or if it is desirable to have all these books together, the letter *L* meaning Language may be used followed by the initial of the language, as LY Yiddish. These are then shelved in a special place for foreign language books.

(9) LITERATURE OF MINOR LANGUAGES 890.—Subdivisions for minor languages are built up on the basis of 490-499. The 8 for Literature takes the place of the 4 for Philology. This literature number can then be divided by 1 Poetry, 2 Drama, 3 Fiction, etc.

Table for languages and literatures.—A great aid in building the Literature numbers is the alphabetical list of languages and literatures in Table 3 of the fourteenth edition of the Decimal classification.

7. Points to observe in the schedule.—The following are some of the points to be observed when studying the Decimal classification:

1. Its printed form
2. Indentation of the headings in the complete tables
3. The use and meaning of boldface and lightface type
4. The index to the introduction
5. The introduction (do not try to read it all at one time)
6. The table of contents
7. The absence of page numbers except for the introductory pages and the index pages
8. The tables making up the third summary
9. The use of form divisions under various classes, as illustrated by the first nine divisions under 300 or 550; also by the subdivisions under 720
10. The full expansion of some subjects, as, for example, 677 Textiles and 940.3-940.4 the first World War
11. The use of *see also* references, as illustrated under 301
12. The use of the note "Divide like the classification," as in 330.19
13. The note about foreign language dictionaries under 423
14. The use of English as a model for the division of other languages. See the note with 430-489
15. The use of the phrase "Preferably classed," as in 533.8
16. The note under 387.2
17. The "Summary" at the head of a main division like 620
18. The note under 914 about description and travel numbers and how to build them
19. The use of the note "Divided like 930-999" as illustrated by 320.9
20. The use of the note "Divided geographically like 940-999" as illustrated under 314-319

21. Geographical division of subjects, as illustrated under 581.91
22. Repetition of three or four topics in both a division and its subdivisions, as in 624
23. The note indicating a subdivision like another division, as illustrated under 641.6
24. The note under 658
25. 708 as an exception to the usual form class
26. The last part of the note under 780
27. The note at the beginning of the Literature class 800
28. Inclusion of the names of writers, with dates of birth and death, in 811-888
29. The full notes given under 860 Spanish literature
30. The note under 890
31. The division of history both by period and by geographical divisions
32. The note under 920 Biography. All notes in the 920's are important
33. 940.3-940.4 as the number for the first World War and 940.53-940.54 as the number for the second World War
34. The notes used in the History schedules, as illustrated under 971.4 and 977.8
35. The explanatory note to the relative index, p.1133-1136
36. The notes at the bottom of each page of the relative index
37. The geographic table on p.1876-1879
38. The table of form subdivisions, p.1884-1887
39. The combined language and literature table on p.1888-1890
40. The table of philological subdivisions on p.1891-1892

8. **Editions.**—The edition of Dewey described in this text is the fourteenth, published in 1942.¹⁰ It is notably different from previous editions, for it takes a number of steps towards becoming a "standard edition," that is, one less subject to change and one where classes are neither overdeveloped nor underdeveloped. Such expansions as were made for the fourteenth edition are given in "standard edition" fulness. On the other hand, classes such as 069, which were formerly given in too much detail, are reduced in scope. The fifteenth edition is projected as a standard edition throughout.

For "small and slowly growing libraries" an *Abridged decimal classification* is published. The sixth edition of this abridged version has been prepared to agree with the fourteenth edition of the main work. A small library can adopt this shorter notation at the beginning and change to full class numbers by adding extra figures when it has reached a size where subdivision is desirable. Miss Fellows, the former editor of the Decimal classification said: "The question whether the abridged classification is adequate for small libraries is a difficult one. The ideal plan is to have both editions, using the abridged as a guide for length of numbers, and

¹⁰ Melvil Dewey, *Decimal classification and relative index* (14th ed., rev. and enl.; Lake Placid: Forest pr., 1942) 1927p.

the complete edition as a reference book for locating topics and a guide for extending numbers to fit individual needs."¹¹

9. Universal decimal classification.—The Institut International de Bibliographie at Brussels, now known as the International Federation for Documentation, adopted the Decimal classification in 1895 for the purpose of classifying its universal subject bibliography kept on cards. As this bibliography was to include subject cards for periodical articles as well as books in all languages, the Decimal classification, as it stood, naturally proved inadequate, especially in the field of science. Melvil Dewey accordingly granted permission to expand and print specially adapted tables. The new scheme, commonly known as the Brussels classification, appeared in French in 1899-1905. The second French edition was issued in 1927-33.¹² In 1934 a German edition began publication, and this was regarded as the third international edition.¹³ An English version, regarded as the fourth international edition, began publication in 1936.¹⁴ The schedule for 680 Botany from this English version is reprinted at the end of the fourteenth edition of Dewey.

The principal changes in the Brussels or Universal decimal classification were in providing more minute subdivisions than Dewey contained and in introducing a variety of symbols to express the interrelationship of subjects. These symbols are explained in the introduction to the fourteenth edition of Dewey under the caption "Bibliographic modifications."

The student should note that the scheme was developed not as a book classification but as a means of arranging an enormous card bibliography. The Engineering Societies Library in New York is one of the few libraries making use of this scheme for regular library purposes. In that library, broad classification was used for the books on the shelves, and a very close classification was adopted for the classified card catalog.

10. Dewey numbers on L. C. cards and in Sears' List of subject headings.—Since 1930 Decimal classification numbers have been printed in the lower right-hand corner of many Library of Congress printed cards.¹⁵ The classification of books for this purpose was begun in April, 1930, for an experimental period of three years, under the auspices of the American

¹¹ J. D. Fellows, "Classification problems of small libraries," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, I (1929), 89.

¹² International Federation for Documentation. *Classification décimale universelle. Tables de classification pour les bibliographies, bibliothèques, archives, administrations, publications, brevets, musées et ensembles d'objets pour toutes les espèces de documentation en général et pour les collections de toute nature.* ([Bruxelles] 1927-33), 4v.

¹³ *Dezimal-Klassifikation, deutsche Gesamtausgabe*, bearbeitet vom Deutschen Normenausschuss (3. internationale Ausgabe; Berlin: Beuthverlag, 1934-).

¹⁴ *Universal decimal classification*. Complete English edition (4th international ed.; Brussels: Keerberghen, 1936-).

¹⁵ Miss Julia C. Pressey, who is in charge of the work of adding Dewey numbers to L. C. cards, has provided the information for this section.

Library Association. On July 1, 1933, the work was taken over by the Library of Congress, and the former A.L.A. Office for D. C. Numbers on L. C. Cards became the D. C. Numbers Section of the Card Division. A year later, when the Co-operative Cataloging and Classification Service was organized, the section became the Decimal Classification Section of that Division. It is now the Decimal Classification Section of the Subject Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress.

The Section assigns D. C. numbers to books that are being cataloged and classified by the Library of Congress. Certain classes of books are, however, passed by without adding the Dewey numbers. For the most part, these are: (1) books which present little or no problem in classification for most libraries, but which would take much time for the Section to classify because of their quantity, such as English and American fiction; (2) books which are owned by few libraries, such as rare books and manuscripts; and (3) material which, because of its form, is not cataloged regularly at the Library of Congress and often receives special handling in other libraries, as, for example, sheet music and maps. Occasionally D. C. numbers are assigned to books being recataloged by the Library of Congress. It follows, therefore, that a classifier may reasonably expect to find D. C. numbers on L. C. cards printed since April, 1930, with the exceptions already noted. As of June 30, 1942, the Section had assigned Dewey numbers to some four hundred thousand titles.

Adapting the numbers to the local library.—In making use of Decimal classification numbers on L. C. cards, it should be kept in mind, first, that these numbers are carried out to extremely close classification to express the content of the book in terms of the Decimal classification, and second, that they are assigned without regard to the particular circumstances of any individual library. Each number, therefore, should be analyzed by the classifier, and compared with the library's official, annotated copy of Dewey, possibly with the shelf list also, before it is accepted for use.

Consider, for example, the number assigned to a book on the history of art in Florence, 709.455. This can be analyzed as follows:

700	Fine arts
00	No subject division
9	History
.4	Europe
5	Italy
5	Tuscany

If books on the history of art are to be kept together on the shelves without dividing by place, the number may be cut to 709. If all histories of European art are to be kept together, near to, but separate from general histories of art, then 709.4 may be used. 709.45 would group books on the history of art in Italy together; while the use of 709.455 would separate

the books on art in Tuscany from books on art in other parts of Italy. Each library should decide, on the basis of the size of its collection and the use made of its books, how far to divide its histories of art. A note of such decisions should be made in the official copy of the Decimal classification.

Sometimes more than one D. C. number appears on a Library of Congress card. If the additional number is enclosed in square brackets, it is suggested as an alternative which some libraries may prefer to the first number. If the additional number is enclosed in curves, it is the number for the series of which the book is a part; that number may be used instead of the number for the specific volume by libraries desiring to keep the series together on the shelves. A number preceded by a hyphen is sometimes found on a card originally printed in 1904 or earlier; this indicates that the number has been revised since January 1, 1936.

Since 1934 *Notes and decisions on the application of the Decimal classification* has been published by the Decimal Classification Section. At first published irregularly, it is now a quarterly. It serves both as a supplement to the printed tables of the Decimal classification and as a record of decisions made by the Section. It is compiled in close cooperation with the editors of the Decimal classification, whose offices are located in the same building. A second series of these *Notes and decisions*, begun in July 1942, relates to the fourteenth edition of Dewey.

D. C. numbers in Sears.—Decimal classification numbers are given with the headings used in the fourth edition of Sears' *List of subject headings*.¹⁶ The object of giving these numbers is "to aid the inexperienced classifier who is faced with the multiplicity of numbers provided by the Dewey classification, and to furnish a simple scheme of classification for small libraries. In general the classification follows the adaptation worked out for the *Standard catalog for public libraries*."

These numbers cannot be adopted without checking with the official copy of Dewey or the shelf list in the local library. The subject Coal is assigned the numbers 553.2, 662.6, and 338.2. These may all be necessary, depending on the phase of the subject treated. The heading "Cost and standard of living" is given two numbers, 331.83 and 338.5. In this case, one will probably suffice. If 331.83 is preferred, a note may be made in the official copy of Dewey or in the shelf list under 338.5 to read: "Not used; for Cost of living see 331.83."

The class numbers in the Sears list are shorter than those appearing on Library of Congress cards.

¹⁶ M. E. Sears, *List of subject headings for small libraries*. 4th ed., rev., with the addition of decimal classification numbers, by Isabel Stevenson Monro. (N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1939) 516p.

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—— "The Decimal Classification Section at the Library of Congress," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, IX (1940), 38-43.

History of the establishment of the Section.

U.S. LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. Subject Cataloging Division. Decimal Classification Section. Notes and decisions on the application of "Decimal classification, ed. 13." Nos. 1-15, Feb. 1934-April 1942.

Includes statements of new numbers authorized, new topics assigned to numbers already in the tables, interpretations of numbers and topics, and corrections in the index.

—— Notes and decisions on the application of the Decimal classification. Second series, no. 1- , July 1942-

Relates particularly to the fourteenth edition of Dewey.

—— Points for the users of D. C. numbers on L. C. cards. 3d ed., Feb. 1941.

A slip, the size of a catalog card.

—— Reports.

In 1930-33, the reports were published in the *A.L.A. Bulletin*. From 1933 on they have been issued in the *Annual report* of the Library of Congress.

Some Practical Questions

1. Would you classify books descriptive of automobile tours with automobiles? Why?
2. What does one gain or lose by the rigid acceptance of the D. C. numbers given on the L. C. cards?

3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of bringing books about places together on the shelves?
4. How many and what phases are there to the transportation question?
5. Would you classify bird flight in the same group with human flight? Why?
6. Is education a sociological question in your mind? Explain?
7. What is the difference between a general and a special periodical? Give an example.
8. Why is it necessary always to have a place in the classification system for general books?
9. Explain what kind of books you would classify in 136.7 Child study and in 370.15 Educational psychology.
10. Where would you classify a book on Spanish literature and one on Spanish American literature?
11. In what ways does the classification of books save time for the library staff and the readers?
12. Into what general class would you put a book called *How to beautify the college campus*?
13. What is the difference between chemistry and chemical technology?
14. What is the difference between the following books from the viewpoint of classification:
 - a) *How to write poetry*
 - b) A collection of poems by ten different authors
 - c) Poems about birds
 - d) Complete works of Tennyson
 - e) Miles Standish, by Longfellow
15. Check the correct class number for the following books:

<i>The Barretts of Wimpole Street</i> ; a comedy by Rudolf Besier				
827	822	822.91	812	
<i>History of English and American literature</i>				
910.9	810.9	820.9	809	
<i>Public speaking for executives</i>				
815	805	808.5	804	807
16. What is the difference between a book on Spanish architecture and one on the architecture of Spain?
17. Where would you classify the following book: *Hispanic anthology; poems translated from the Spanish by English and American poets*?
18. What is the difference between a book of music and one about music?
19. Assign D. C. numbers to the following:
 - a) *A book of Danish verse*, . . . selected and annotated by Oluf Friis
 - b) *A book of lullabies*, compiled by Elva S. Smith
 - c) *Laughing Anne & One day more*; two plays by Joseph Conrad
 - d) *Critical studies of the works of Charles Dickens*, by George Gissing
 - e) *A study of the modern drama*, by B. H. Clark
 - f) *Twenty-five short plays, international*, selected and edited by Frank Shay
 - g) *Punch and Judy & other essays*, by Maurice Baring

V

The Cutter Expansive and the Library of Congress Classification Systems

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|---|--|
| I. Expansive Classification of C. A. Cutter | 3. Aids in the use of the classification |
| II. Library of Congress Classification | 4. Use of the classification by libraries |
| 1. Introduction | 5. Government recognition insures the classification |
| 2. Explanation of the system | |

The two American systems of classification printed later than the Dewey Decimal system—the Expansive classification of C. A. Cutter, and the system worked out by the Library of Congress and used for classifying the great collection of that library—will be discussed in this chapter.

I. Expansive Classification of C. A. Cutter

Many critics have considered this classification the most scholarly of the book classifications. It was drawn up for the collection of 170,000 volumes in the Boston Athenaeum, of which Mr. Cutter was the librarian, and it began to appear in print in 1891. The death of the author left the work incomplete, but fortunately some classes under way were edited and published later by W. P. Cutter who also added some new material. Many of the best features of this scheme have been incorporated in that of the Library of Congress. Its interest to the student lies in the facts that it may be used as a basis for developing certain classes not adequate in some of the systems now in use and that from the historical point of view the scheme cannot go unrecognized. It was conceived by a scholar and a librarian whose work has done much to put library science on a high plane. It has been used in developing later classifications and must therefore take its place as a real contribution to library literature, even though it is incomplete.

A full study of the Expansive classification is left to the advanced student, but the beginner should have some knowledge of the plan.

The plan.—The scheme envisaged seven separate schedules, each being more detailed than the preceding one, and each being designed to

serve libraries of different size from the very small to the large. The first table is one of few classes and no subdivisions and is for the use of a very small library. The scheme is developed by gradually increasing the number of classes and sub-classes and bringing additional letters into the notation. The seventh table was to contain the full tables necessary to classify a very large collection. It was from this adaptation to growth that the system received the title "Expansive."

The base of the plan is twenty-six large classes, each divided into twenty-six parts, with further subdivisions into smaller groups, giving a total capacity of more than eighteen thousand class numbers. With the large base of twenty-six classes, there is room for almost indefinite expansion by the addition of new divisions within the classes.

Mr. Cutter tells us that:

The expansive classification follows the evolutionary idea throughout, in natural history putting the parts of each subject in the order which that theory assigns to their appearance in creation. Its science proceeds from the molecular to the molar, from number and space, through matter and force, to matter and life; its botany going up from cryptogams to phanerogams; its zoology from the protozoa to the primates, ending with anthropology. The book arts follow the history of the book from its production (by authorship, writing, printing, and binding), through its distribution (by publishing and bookselling), to its storage and use in libraries public and private, ending with its description, that is, bibliography, suitably divided into general, national, subject, and selective. Economics, too, have a natural order—population, production, distribution of the things produced, distribution of the returns, property, consumption. Fine arts are grouped into the arts of solid—the landscape gardening, architecture, sculpture, casting; and the arts of the plane—painting, engraving, etc.; and the mixed arts, being the smaller decorative and semi-industrial arts.

Similar examples of logical, or, if you please, natural arrangement, are: Putting Bible between Judaism—to which the first part, the Old Testament, belongs—and Christianity, whose sacred book forms the second part; putting Church history between Christian theology and history; putting statistics between geography and economics, since it might have gone in either; putting music between the recreative arts and the fine arts. There are many such transitions, parts of them, at least, novel in classification. They are not merely ingenuities pleasing only to their contriver; they have a certain practical value, since they bring books together which one may wish to use at the same time.¹

The system was designed not as a classification of knowledge, but of books, although the author said: "I believe . . . that the maker of a scheme for book arrangement is most likely to produce a work of permanent value if he keeps always before his mind a classification of knowledge."

¹International Library Conference, London, 1897. *Transactions and proceedings* (London, 1898), p.86-87.

Notation.—The main classes are represented by capital letters, and subdivisions by small capitals added to the letters of the main classes; for example, F stands for History and Fv for Heraldry. No figures are introduced to designate a subdivision of subjects, but the use of figures for countries is a special feature of the scheme. A geographical table, called the "Local list," is printed apart from the main classification. The figures in this Local list may be added to any letter combination to express the regional division of any subject. For example, no matter where the number 45 occurs, it always means England. Thus, by adding that number to Fv, we have Fv45 which is the Heraldry of England. The local notation is a very useful and simple method for designating geographical subdivisions, and because figures are used only for place and form, while letters are reserved for all other subjects, a distinctive and excellent mnemonic feature is given to the scheme.

The Local list may also be used to group together all material under a country by using the number first and affixing the letters standing for subjects, as 45F for English history and 45W for English art. The same list is used to designate the literature and literary history of a country, Y and Zy standing for these subjects. By adding the number 35, which stands for Italy, we have Y35 Italian literature and Zy35 History of Italian literature.

Indexes.—An index for the first six classifications was printed in one alphabet. Each completed part of the seventh classification was equipped with its own index.

It is impossible to place this scheme in the field of practical bibliography because of its incompleteness. It has been used too infrequently to test it justly. In libraries where it has been employed we find people always ready to affirm that it is an excellent system, although it is much hampered by the fact that it has not been brought up to date.

II. Library of Congress Classification

1. Introduction.—The L. C. scheme of classification has been evolved in the actual work of classifying and reclassifying the books in the National Library.

The Library of Congress was founded in 1800. At that time the arrangement of its 964 volumes and 9 maps was by size. All folios were arranged together, quartos, octavos, and duodecimos in separate groups. This system remained in vogue until 1812, when the library owned 3,076 volumes and 53 maps. Two years later, in 1814, the Capitol, which housed the library, was burned and the collection was almost completely destroyed. In 1815 the library of Thomas Jefferson came into the possession of Congress and the classification used by Jefferson was adopted. This was an adaptation of Francis Bacon's well-known scheme for the classification of

knowledge. It called for the arrangement of the books in forty-four groups. A catalog of this collection was compiled in which the Jefferson group headings were retained, but the books were arranged alphabetically within the groups. A supplement, following the same arrangement, was issued in 1827.

The classification thus inaugurated was retained with some changes and a good many additions. Changes were supervised by A. R. Spofford, librarian of Congress from 1860 to 1897, who believed the aim of the classifier should not be to establish a logical system but to bring about a convenient arrangement of books. Although he found the Baconian system of classification "a worse than Procrustean bed," he did not abandon it for another of his own making but simply modified it. He avoided close classification altogether because he believed it involved notation that was too complicated. He abhorred book numbers, and in later years when the new classification was under discussion he was inexorable on one point: there must be no decimals.

In 1897 the Catalog Division assumed charge of the development of a new system of classification under the direction of the chief of the Division, J. C. M. Hanson, who, with Charles Martel, began the task of evolving both notation and schedules. In 1899 Dr. Herbert Putnam became the librarian. His plans for the reorganization of the library gave impetus to the development of the new scheme.

It was found that much preliminary research and comparative study were necessary to determine the best scheme to apply to this great library. The question whether to take an existing scheme or to work out a new one was carefully considered, with the result that it was decided to make use of the best features in all existing classifications and to construct from these a classification broader than any then in print. This was necessary in order to reclassify the collection of more than two million books and pamphlets which has now grown to more than six million. The plan most closely followed was the Expansive system of C. A. Cutter, but many features of the Brunet, Decimal, and Brussels schemes, as well as others, were introduced. Many suggestions were also taken from printed catalogs and bibliographies.

Slowly, and in the face of almost insurmountable difficulties, a great scheme of classification has been evolved to care for the volumes already in the collection as well as those to be added in the years to come. It was not expected that the system would be used to any extent by other libraries and no consideration was given by its makers to such libraries. However, many libraries have already taken advantage of the printed schedules and are benefiting by the work done by the Library of Congress for its own collection.

The system is essentially a book classification, for the books in each

class were arranged and studied before the scheme was made. Probably no better opportunity has ever been offered for developing a classification based on the actual handling of books.

2. Explanation of the system.—Fortunately the former Chief Assistant Librarian, Mr. M. A. Roberts, has prepared for scholars and librarians a most readable, terse, and clear account of this system as it is used in the Library of Congress today. The following quotation is included here for the benefit of students of classification:

The classification is at once the extension and the complement of the catalog; it is in effect a method of cataloging by subject accomplished by the actual arrangement of the books on the shelves. When such an arrangement can be systematically and thoroughly carried out the accruing advantages to the searcher are enormous. He can go directly to the shelves for his material—not only to the larger groups (e.g., "Philosophy and Religion", class B; "Chemistry", class QD) but to the actual topic of his consideration (e.g., "Perseverance of the Saints", BT768; "Sulphoxides", QD341.S6), without the interposition of any catalog, bibliography, or list. It is only within comparatively modern times that the concentration and diversification of material, which made such an arrangement important and desirable, also permitted its execution on any considerable scale. The scheme of classification adopted by the Library of Congress in the years following 1899 was elaborated by its own experts, for its own use, benefiting from a previous century of trial and error. Its virtues are: (1) Comprehensiveness (every phase of human activity is accounted for; there is no "miscellaneous" residue), (2) particularity (topics are logical subdivisions of general subjects; not lumped within them), (3) expansiveness (new subjects find their places by logical coordination within the existing scheme), (4) flexibility (the natural and economical arrangement of wholly different classes of material, and of material in small and large quantities is provided for), (5) practicality (the system is not based solely upon a philosophical classification of knowledge and does not force the material into arbitrary forms for the sake of logic), (6) articulation (cognate classes are at once related and differentiated by position and by necessary notes and cross references in the schedules), (7) simplicity (the notation is expressive and uncomplicated), (8) individuality (the scheme is that of the Library of Congress with its responsibility primarily to the Congress, and consequently arranges the material from that point of view), and (9) adaptability (in spite of its individuality the scheme is easily adapted to the use of other large or special libraries, American or foreign).

The classification as projected is substantially complete, but is undergoing a continuous amplification in fields in which material is concentrated. The schedules have been printed and from time to time reprinted as this amplification has proceeded, placing the results at the disposal of other libraries. The bibliothecal worth of the classification and its convenience of application have been attested by its adoption in nearly 200 other libraries, American and foreign, and by its characterization, in the words of the secretary of the British Museum Library, as the only adequate scheme for use in considerable libraries.

In addition to enabling direct recourse to material on the shelves, by subject,

the classification offers two advantages. (1) The shelf-list (the inventorial catalog which records the books in the exact order in which they are classified) becomes a class-catalog or *catalogue raisonné* of the classified collections. There is now being developed a classed catalog on cards supplemental to the shelf-list. (2) The classification, as a logical development of related subjects, uses a terminology somewhat different from that employed by the catalog, where each subject stands by itself in merely alphabetic order. The varying viewpoints taken in the two processes furnish approaches to the material supplementary to each other.

The application of the classification is to the general collections of books, the collections of the Divisions of Music, Smithsonian, Slavic, and Aeronautics; to the book collections of the Divisions of Maps and Fine Arts. The classifications of the Law Library and of the Periodical Division have not been reduced to notation. The collections of the Division of Manuscripts are classified only by type of collection. The prints of the Division of Fine Arts are arranged by (1) school, (2) period, and (3) artist. The Chinese collections are arranged according to the method known as the *Ssü-k'uch'üan* which divides the material into four groups according with four great divisions of knowledge. Maps are arranged topographically, with a final chronological order. Semitica are arranged alphabetically only within large major divisions.²

No critical estimate of the system is attempted here. An effort has been made to show only the main plan, and through examples to demonstrate some practical policies.

The plan.—The outline scheme of main classes and the portion of the National Library classified in 1941 under the new classification, containing in round numbers 3,932,400 volumes, is distributed as follows:³

Class		Volumes
A	Polygraphy	164,400
B-BJ	Philosophy	50,100
BL-BX	Religion	186,400
C-D	History (except American), Genealogy	309,500
E-F	American history	255,600
G	Geography, Anthropology	64,900
H-J	Social, economic and political science	979,800
L	Education	163,000
M	Music (literature)	79,000
N	Fine arts	78,100
P	Language and literature	372,800
PZ	Fiction and juvenile literature in English	155,900
Q	Science	284,100
R	Medicine	122,100
S	Agriculture	134,800
T	Technology	268,800

²M. A. Roberts, *The Library of Congress in relation to research* ([Washington]: Govt. print. off., 1939), p.33-34.

³U.S. Library of Congress. *Annual report of the librarian of Congress, 1941* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1942), p.234.

U	Military science	52,300
V	Naval science	36,600
Z	Bibliography	172,700
Incunabula	1,500

In this outline of twenty-one groups it will be observed that the letters I, O, W, X, and Y have not yet been used, allowing for the development of at least five main classes. An outline of the classes,⁴ showing some subdivisions, has been printed separately. It should be owned by any one who is studying the classification.

The study of any new classification system will be simplified if it is comparative. The Decimal classification is based on a very definite plan and the same general principles appear in each class throughout the schedules; it is, therefore, a good system to use as a basis for comparative study. Students should be familiar with this classification before attempting to understand that of the Library of Congress. Taking the scheme with the larger base, which is that of the Library of Congress, the student will find it enlightening to apply the Decimal notation to each main class in order to become acquainted with the differences in the main grouping of classes. Such a comparative chart will furnish a very good basis for discussion.

No attempt has been made to have the main classes gradate into one another in the Library of Congress scheme. This would be unnecessary in such a large collection, but it will be noted that related subjects have often been combined in the same group, as Language and Literature; Geography and Anthropology; and Philosophy and Religion. The inability of the reader to pass from one class to another without being conscious of a break in the sequence may be serious in a small book collection. It has, however, little real significance in practical use in a library of over six million volumes.

The schedules and tables.—The schedules provide for the most minute grouping of subjects. A marking for individual titles is even supplied in the case of special collections of prolific authors. Such examples will be found in class B Philosophy and in class P Literature.⁵ Each class is made complete even if certain phases of a subject may preferably be placed in another group. The same topic is often included in several classes, but curves used around the number show when the entry is secondary. This feature makes the schedules particularly useful for special libraries, where it may be desirable to focus all phases of a subject in one class. For an example of this feature, see the schedule for CT.

(1) **SYNOPSIS.**—Each main schedule is preceded by a synopsis corre-

⁴ U.S. Library of Congress. Subject Cataloging Division. *Outline of the Library of Congress classification*. Rev. and enl. ed. of "Outline scheme of classes." (Washington: [Govt. print. off.], 1942), 22p.

⁵ The Literature schedule is described briefly on p.77.

sponding to a table of contents. The main divisions are given in some of the larger classes, such as D Universal and old world history. A second synopsis precedes the larger divisions and shows how these are subdivided. The student should begin his study of any specific class by reading the preface to that class, then the synopsis, and lastly the complete tables. The beginner should choose a small class for his study. JV Immigration is a good group because it brings out telling features of the classification.

(2) COMPLETE TABLES OR MAIN CLASSES.—The term "complete tables" is used to designate the schedules which make up a class. They constitute the main part of the classification.

(a) *Forms*.—The first grouping of books within a class is by form as follows: periodicals, societies, congresses, collections, yearbooks, dictionaries, terminology and nomenclature, encyclopedic works, study and teaching, theory, method, etc. These follow very closely the Dewey plan but are more detailed and have no mnemonic features.

These forms may differ in various groups, depending on whether the subject lends itself to such treatment. For example, the form division *Terminology and nomenclature* may not be needed in Fine arts, but is necessary in Philosophy.

(b) *General works*.—Following the forms under each large class are the general works, often divided by date so that the earlier material may be separated from the more recent. The date 1800 is most frequently used for demarcation purposes, but other dates and even centuries are used where such grouping is better adapted to the subject.

General books lending themselves to geographical treatment are frequently divided by country, state, or city, either by means of special numbers or by an alphabetical arrangement under one number. Such an arrangement is to be found in NA53-60 Architecture. Differentiation is often made between general and "general special" works. The latter term is used for books treating of the general subject but having a special bearing; they are noncomprehensive. H. H. Statham's *Architecture among the poets* is an example.

References are generously made in the schedule to related topics and to various phases of the same topic which may be included in another class. This is illustrated under NA100 and also under NA205.

Explanations of certain terms greatly facilitate the use of the scheme. For examples of this see N8215 Literary subjects and HF5386 Success literature.

(3) SURVEY OF TWO CLASSES—

(a) *Class D History*.—One of the most interesting classes in the scheme is D Universal and old world history. The following extract taken from the preface of that class will serve to show not only the theory which formed the basis for formulating this schedule, but also the wisdom needed

by the makers of the scheme to develop classes, correlate topics, and interject references so that a systematic whole could be evolved.

The philosophy that underlies the classification of history may be briefly outlined. First stands the most universally inclusive literature, subdivided in the more important countries into periodicals and societies, sources and documents, and the collected writings, such as monographs, essays, lectures, etc., of several and individual authors. Upon this follows a grouping of gazetteers, dictionaries, and guidebooks, which leads to the systematic comprehensive treatises comprising both history and description, or works on the topography and geography of a given country. Physical geography, however, is classed in GB.

Now follow the several components of the foregoing, namely, description and travel, social life and customs (including civilization and culture), antiquities, and ethnography and races. . . . Literature, however, dealing with social conditions from a sociological point of view is classed in HN, that dealing with the theory of civilization in CB, works on the economic situation in HC, those of a strictly anthropological character in GN, and artistic archeology in N.

Just as a knowledge of the geography of a country is essential to the understanding of its history, so, too, the biographies and memoirs of the men and women who are the chief actors in the daily drama of social, political, and diplomatic life give to history life and warmth, and not infrequently the memoirs of a statesman or court favorite throw more light on an historical situation than do volumes of political theory. Collective biography, accordingly, precedes the general works on the history of a country [See, for example, DA531.1], while individual biography, including memoirs, recollections, correspondence, etc., is classed with the particular period or reign during which the person in question was especially prominent [as in DA565]. Genealogy, however, is classed in CS. It will be observed that the sequence of subdivisions under collective biography is not uniform for all countries. The final form used, for instance, in DL [See DL44] is an advance over the one first adopted as, for instance, in DD [cf. DD85, DD100 and DD158], but because of the mass of material involved, it was deemed inexpedient to strive for absolute uniformity at present, particularly as the change is not of essential significance.

The general works, which in the more important countries are subdivided into those written before 1800 and those since, are as a rule followed by the so-called general special [See DP101 and DP103], which might well be termed noncomprehensive, and the minor or pamphlet material of general import. The general literature on the special topics of military, naval, political and diplomatic history comes next, but the more special material is classed with the pertinent period or reign or event, the treatment varying with the individual country. Works on political and constitutional history are, however, classed in J, international law in JX, and military and naval science in U and V.

In the general period divisions there is considerable freedom of treatment, depending now on the amount of literature involved and now on the significance of the historical situation. This obtains also in the individual reigns. For instance, biography and memoirs have in some instances been placed immediately after the sources and documents [See DK219]; in others and more generally in

the later schemes, at the extreme end of the pertinent reign or period, where, by reason of their magnitude and miscellaneous character, they constitute a better group than immediately preceding systematic treatises.

At the end of each country division are placed the component provinces and districts, rivers, lakes, mountains, cities, towns, etc. [See, for example, DD701-901]. Here is classified everything within the scope of history and description having distinctly local interest. Only when it has a more general bearing does a local event go with the general period or reign, while colonial history as a whole is regularly classed in JV.

Other details have been incorporated in the index, where it is felt that the average user of the scheme will look for guidance, and which has been constructed from the viewpoint that it is an integral part of the scheme of classification.⁶

(b) *Class P Language and literature*.—This group is one of the most extensive in the entire classification. It is divided into different schedules as follows:

P-PA	Comparative philology; classical philology and literature
PB-PH	Modern European languages
PJ-PM	Languages and literatures of Asia, Africa, Oceania, America; artificial languages
PN, PR, PS, PZ	English and American literature; fiction in English; juvenile literature
PQ pt. 1	French literature
PQ pt. 2	Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese literature
PT pt. 1	German literature
PT pt. 2	Dutch and Scandinavian literatures

One of the most interesting and amazing schedules in the whole classification is PA Classics. It presents an alphabetical listing of Greek and Latin authors, down to the very minor ones, with dates of each where at all possible. The arrangement is based on the traditional Latin form of the writer's name. Titles of works are listed, even when only fragments or merely the titles have survived. The schedule includes a list of authorities consulted in the course of its preparation.

The other schedules contain lists of authors, but not in the same fullness. The student should pay particular attention to the various tables that may be used for individual authors.

Fiction in English is classified in PZ3. Other literary forms are not separated as they are in Dewey, a feature which is found to be very satisfactory in the college and university libraries that use the scheme. Such libraries generally desire to have all the works of an author and all the books about him grouped together.

(4) *NOTATION*.—The notation is mixed, that is, made up of letters and numbers. Capital letters are used singly and in combination to sig-

⁶U.S. Library of Congress. *Classification; class D* (Washington: [Govt. print. off.], 1916), p.4-5.

nify subjects. The topics or divisions under these subjects are expressed by arabic numerals arranged consecutively within a group. For example, Fine arts is N, Architecture is NA, and within both of these groups is a series of numbers beginning with one and running in sequence. Many gaps have been left in the numbering, making it possible to expand by adding whole blocks of unused numbers.

Numbers already used can be expanded by the use of decimals, as in DA86. The use of decimals does not mean that the Library of Congress scheme is a decimal system, nor do the decimals always imply subarrangement. They are used because no whole number is available at that particular place. .A1 to .A6 or .A1 to .A8 are frequently used to group one phase of a subject immediately before another. For example, under DD156 Houses of Hapsburg and Luxemburg, .A2 stands for Sources and documents, while General works are arranged alphabetically by author under .A3-Z.

Mr. Martel says:

The practically unlimited flexibility and expansibility of the Library of Congress classification, the variety of notation devices for subdividing subjects by form, local, or subject subdivisions without resorting to excessively long and complicated marks or symbols, permits not only the addition and incorporation of new subjects in the schedules wherever desired but would make it possible with a three-letter symbol to substitute gradually class by class an entirely new set of schedules.⁷

(a) *Form and geographical divisions.*—The general form divisions come first under each major subject and consist of periodicals, societies, collections, dictionaries, official records, etc. These form divisions, as well as the geographical divisions, are repeated under every topic which justifies their use. In the geographical tables the letters do not have a constant meaning, for in separate tables .A8 may mean Australia or Arkansas. In placing these geographical and form divisions at the beginning of each class, the classifiers have rendered the dividing line between the classes very distinct. To some classifiers there may be a distinct advantage in grouping under a country all the subdivisions of a subject in logical order rather than with the theoretical works; but, in comparison with other systems, the lack of form and geographical divisions makes it seem as if there is a great enlargement of the tables in the Library of Congress scheme without a corresponding advantage. In short, two of the important features of an ideal system of classification, i.e., economy in marking and mnemonic value, are lacking in this system.

(5) SPECIAL TABLES AND SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS UNDER SUBJECTS.—

⁷ Charles Martel, "The Library of Congress classification," In *Essays offered to Herbert Putnam* (New Haven: Yale univ. pr., 1929), p.330-331.

Special tables contain directions for subdividing a class more minutely than in the general tables. Many of these are definitely devised to cover the one subject to which they apply and are seldom suitable for any other topic. It is by means of these tables that logical and minute expansion can be accomplished. They appear either at the end of the class or are incorporated in the body of the schedules. A reference is made in the schedules to the tables to be used in each case where special arrangement is desirable.

The beginner will find the use of the special tables difficult. It is to be regretted that more explicit directions are not printed to explain their use. The following interpretation of the tables, accompanied by examples, may help the inexperienced.

Since the regional subdivision of topics relates more often to the United States than to other countries, a table covering this country is frequently given in detail in the body of the schedules. A supplementary table for other countries, to be used if desired, is added at the end of the schedules.

Geographical subdivisions are designated in several ways: by a series of numbers assigned to a place in the regular sequence of numbers; by a decimal number attached to the primary number; or by Cutter numbers.

The minuteness of the geographical division is dependent upon the subject to be divided. In some cases the continents alone suffice, or perhaps the nations of the world; in others it may be necessary to classify down to the smallest geographical division as is often the case in class D. Descriptive books are very closely classified. For example, under DQ Switzerland one finds the number 841 assigned to regions, peaks, etc., with provision made for dividing this subject again alphabetically by individual peaks by means of Cutter numbers; e.g., books treating of the Jungfrau (Cutter J8) would be marked DQ841.J8.

Emphasis is often given to one city of a country by assigning a whole block of numbers to it, while other cities of the same country are covered by including them under one number and arranging them alphabetically. For example, the symbol DF has been assigned to Greece, and under this, Athens obviously needs special treatment. Accordingly the numbers 915-935 are assigned to Athens, and other cities of Greece are arranged alphabetically under the one number 951. Books about Thebes take the symbol DF951.T3.

(a) *Geographical tables in H Social sciences.*—This class has been chosen as an illustration because it contains "floating" geographical tables which may be used to divide subjects not otherwise provided for in the classification. These include tables for American cities and states, and a table of foreign countries.

The "Table of geographical divisions" in class H may be best explained by analyzing a symbol. Taking the subject, Labor literature and history

(later) for France, we begin with HD8101-8940, which is the group of numbers assigned for countries other than the United States. Table VIII is indicated. Turning to this we find France has been assigned the twenty numbers beginning with the 321st and going through the 340th. Of the series of numbers 8101-8940, assigned to countries other than the United States, the 321st number through the 340th belong to France: that is, 8421 through 8440. The table of subject subdivisions assigns the tenth number to Labor literature and history (later). The tenth number is 8430. Therefore the number for Labor literature and history (later) for France is HD8430.

(b) *Subject subdivision tables.*—An example of such a table is given in J Political science. We find a table of subject subdivisions under states in JK2700-9501. This table can be applied as follows to classify the journal of the New Hampshire Constitutional Convention of 1918. The numbers for New Hampshire are 2901-3000, and the table gives history by period (date of constitution or constitutional treatise) as 25, or the twenty-fifth number in the group of numbers 2901-3000 which is 2925. Since this publication is issued in the form of a journal, A25, taken from the subdivision of the table, is added. The whole symbol, therefore, becomes

JK	Constitutional history—U.S.
2925	New Hampshire constitutional history (by period)
.1918	Date
.A25	Journal

(c) *Form division tables.*—One of the most general tables for forms is that in AS General works, Societies. Here the simple notation is as follows:

.A1	Periodicals
.A2	Yearbooks
.A3-.A4	Congresses
.A5	History, handbooks
.A6	Local
.A7	Directories, lists
.A8-Z	Individual societies

These symbols may be added to any subdivisions under country in AS to which one number is assigned in the schedules. It will be noted that .A1 through .A7 are used for form divisions and are an integral part of the classification. .A8-Z are used for all individual societies.

A flexible scheme for form books which can be applied to any class is outlined by Anna C. Laws, of the Library of Congress, as follows:

Under many subjects it is advisable to place certain forms of material at the beginning of the class, and the notation is manipulated to this end. This is perfectly feasible, as the proportion of surnames beginning with A is small. .A1 to

.A6 or .A1 to .A8 may always be reserved when needed, and authors' surnames beginning with that letter find room under .A7 to .A9 alone if .A1-.A8 has been set aside for other purposes.⁸

Fixed tables are illustrated by Z5001-8000 Subject bibliography. Three tables to be used with the various subjects are given; the one to be followed in each case is indicated by a symbol before the subject.

General works	7161
Early works	7162
Periodicals	7163
Topics	7164
Local	7165
Catalogs	7166

Special topics, Z7164, is divided by subject and a table is given with the Cutter number for each.

EXAMPLE: Massachusetts. Bureau of statistics. Labor bibliography.

Z Bibliography

7164 Political and social sciences. Special topics

.L1 is the number given in the table for Labor

M4 is the Cutter number for Massachusetts

Regarding the tables Miss Laws says:

No table should be slavishly followed, but should be amplified or modified as exigencies arise. As books are not screws, turned out by machinery, according to a mathematical formula, but present infinite variety as to form and content, an orderly arrangement requires the constant exercise of ingenuity and common sense. An example illustrating this point may be taken from the Literature schedule (PN-PR-PS-PZ). In Table VIIIa the literary forms of an author's works are placed in the following order: 1. Novels, 2. Essays, 3. Poems, 4. Plays. If an author is pre-eminently a novelist, his novels take precedence. If he is a playwright *par excellence* the dramas would take first position and the novels be relegated to fourth place, and so on. If the author has written nothing but poetry, is it necessary merely for the sake of uniformity to crowd all his works into the third section and waste the others?⁹

The best way for the student to become familiar with the tables is to select certain books which will illustrate their use, buy the Library of Congress cards for them, and analyze the call numbers which are printed on the cards. The following Library of Congress order numbers will furnish the student with printed cards giving examples:

3-1444	14-18604	22-11012
9-1497	16-24609	22-20511
12-17232	17-21830	25-22065

⁸ U.S. Library of Congress. Classification Division. *Author notation in the Library of Congress*, by Anna C. Laws (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1920), p.13-14.

⁹ *Op. cit.*, p.18.

The advanced student will want to examine Miss Grout's explanation of the tables.¹⁰

Editions of the schedules.—The schedules have been issued in a pamphlet edition. Each main class has been printed separately with its own title page, imprint, and independent paging. The size of the schedules varies from sixty-three to more than six hundred pages, and the price ranges from ten cents to several dollars. Several classes have already been revised and printed in second and third editions. The schedules are sold by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington. The Library of Congress supplies slips containing additions and changes in the classification schedules. These slips may be obtained on application.

Indexes.—As each class is completed, an alphabetical index to the class becomes an integral part of the schedule. While this index is relative (that is, it refers to all aspects of the subject), it does not give all references to the same topic appearing in another main class. This is not possible since the schedules are printed at different times.

The indexes are very full, including geographical entries, personal names when used as subjects, names of battles, and other topics frequently omitted from such lists. References are made from different forms of names and attention is sometimes directed to related subjects, as, for example, Bohemia, *see also* Czechoslovak Republic. A sample of the index in N Fine arts may be cited.

Religious art	N7790-8190
Architecture	NA4600-6113
Monuments	NB1750
Painting	ND1430
Prints	NE1675, 1712, 1722, 1732
Sculpture	NB1910

The printed list of subject headings of the Library of Congress has been made to serve as a relative index, but it is naturally limited to those terms which have been used in a dictionary catalog. Many terms in this list cannot be given a reference to the classification because they are too specific. However, this list does locate many more related topics than can be found in the indexes printed with each schedule. It is probable that a complete index to the classification will be issued as soon as all schedules have been completed.

Advantages and disadvantages of the scheme.—The advantages that a library finds in using the L. C. classification are:

1. Class numbers are printed on L. C. cards.
2. The notation is elastic.

¹⁰ C. W. Grout, *An explanation of the tables used in the schedules of the Library of Congress classification*. (N. Y.: School of Library Service, Columbia univ., c1940), 108p.

3. Each class is printed as a separate unit which may be
 - (a) shelved in the stacks by subject
 - (b) shelved in a departmental library
 - (c) shelved in classrooms
 - (d) used as desk copies by classifiers.
4. Country and local subdivisions fit particular subjects and are not applied uniformly throughout.
5. The L. C. list of subject headings can be used as a relative index.
6. It was developed by competent classifiers for actual application to a very large collection of books.
7. The subdivisions are minute.
8. It is fostered by the National Library.
9. It is an effective and economical scheme to maintain since it emanates from a growing library.
10. It contains valuable bibliographical information, especially in P Literature.
11. The scheme has many features that fit in with the organization and needs of university libraries.

Among the disadvantages are:

1. There are no directions for its use.
2. There is as yet no complete index.
3. It lacks mnemonic features.
4. The scheme is of such magnitude.

3. **Aids in the use of the classification.**—L. C. call numbers are printed on the cards in all cases where the schedules have been completed. Some libraries follow these numbers as printed, in some cases accepting the book numbers as well as the class numbers. While these printed numbers are considered an advantage to classifiers, they are not always a deciding factor in determining the adoption of the L. C. classification by libraries. They are simply another, though important, advantage to be gained by using the system. They have proved a great economy to classifiers and of material assistance in deciding difficult questions, even when another system of classification is being followed.

Classifiers depending on L. C. catalog cards must guard against accepting a symbol which does not fit the needs or practice of a local library. This applies particularly in a university library where faculty and departmental library considerations may have to be taken into account.

4. **Use of the classification by libraries.**—More than two hundred and thirty libraries in this country and abroad have adopted the Library of Congress classification in whole or in part.¹¹ They include university, special, and governmental libraries. Very few public libraries use the

¹¹ The *Annual report* of the Library of Congress for 1936/37 contains a list of libraries using the classification. The subsequent reports have added new names to the list.

scheme: one is the reference department of the Boston Public Library.

College and university libraries have adopted the scheme in considerable numbers. Professors and students commonly want their books classified closely, and they find that the plan of the L. C. classification is in accordance with their needs.

The large library will probably find the L. C. scheme more satisfactory than will the small library, unless the book collection of the latter is limited to a special field; in that case the L. C. classification may be the best yet printed. For example, a special music library would doubtless find the Music schedule a most satisfactory scheme to adopt. It was worked out by O. G. Sonneck and embodies the results of classifying a representative music collection. Mr. Sonneck says in his preface:

A classifier of fair talent and skill could without much difficulty "telescope" our scheme into a suitable instrument for any collection of any size, by canceling unnecessary subdivisions, by substituting subdivisions needed for his special purposes, and by rearranging at his convenience the sequence of certain entries.

This statement is probably true of many classes, but only the classifier of at least "fair talent" should undertake such changes.

5. Government recognition insures the classification.—The fact that the schedules are printed as government documents and may be purchased at low price brings the L. C. system within the reach of most libraries and many individuals. With the National Library behind the enterprise we may be reasonably assured that the classification will be kept up to date.

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VI

Book Numbers and the Shelf List

I. Book Numbers

1. Definitions
2. Author arrangement under subject
3. Symbols for marking books
4. Cutter numbers
5. Special schemes
6. Special location marks
7. Library of Congress author notation

II. The Shelf List

1. Definition
2. Uses
3. Rules for compiling
4. Form of the shelf list
5. Number of entries on a card
6. Arrangement of the cards
7. Shelf list as an accession record
8. Union shelf list
9. Shelf list and want list
10. Shelf list at the Library of Congress

Thus far in our study we have traced the books to the shelves where they are grouped by subject. There is yet no secondary arrangement by which a given book can be identified. This secondary arrangement will be discussed in this chapter, together with the shelf records that are consulted when book numbers are assigned.

I. Book Numbers¹

1. Definitions.—Before beginning a discussion of the marking of books so that they may be easily located or replaced on the shelves, the student should have in mind the following definitions based on Cutter's *Rules for a dictionary catalog*.

Class number or class mark—One or more characters showing the class to which a book belongs. In a relative location this number also shows the place of the book on the shelves.

Book number—One or more characters used to distinguish an individual book from all others having the same class number.

Call number—Characters indicating the location of a book on the shelves and distinguishing it from all others in the library. The call number is composed of the class mark and the book number.

¹ Bertha R. Barden's *Book numbers* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1937) should be studied in connection with the first part of this chapter.

In the following example, 820.7 is the class mark and R74 the book number; together they form the call number.

The call number at the right will appear on the back of the book if the work is in more than one volume.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} 820.7 \\ R74 \\ v.3 \end{array} \right\}$	<p>The same call number at the right will appear in this form on the catalog and shelf cards. The volume number, omitted here, will appear in the collation on the catalog card; the shelf card will have volume and copy numbers noted after the title.</p>	$\left. \begin{array}{l} 820.7 \\ R74 \end{array} \right\}$
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2. Author arrangement under subject.—An alphabetical arrangement of authors is usually adopted under each class or subject because it is a convenient means of locating books and because it enables all the works of one author who has written a number of books on one subject to be brought together. The books are then arranged on the shelves in this order: (1) subject, (2) author, and (3) title.

3. Symbols for marking books—

Marking with class number only.—If libraries use no book numbers certain difficulties are at once encountered. The choice of entry is left to the person shelving the books. If the author's name, which is to furnish the secondary arrangement, does not appear on the back of the book, what name is to be selected from the title page? If the author has written under two or more names, as did Birmingham, are the books to be arranged under the two names and thus become separated? When two names are mentioned, which name will be chosen? How are books to be shelved which have no author, that is anonymous books? What will happen if there are several editions of the same book, perhaps with different title pages? Will these be kept together so that they can be found quickly to serve the reader who may want the fourth edition and will take no other?

These and many other questions will arise in the mind of the person who wishes to replace a book after he has used it; and the assistant whose duty it is to keep the shelves in order will meet the same difficulties. Libraries which use no book numbers commonly write the author's name (often with white ink) on the spine of the book if it is not already printed there. If several names have been printed there, which frequently happens, the author's name is underscored.

If no individual symbol is given to a book, there is no short-cut reference for the call system, and the reader is forced to copy the author and title each time he uses the catalog.

If no symbol is used, less difficulty is encountered in shelving fiction than in shelving classed books. The arrangement of fiction is not so im-

portant; there is less confusion with other names, such as editors and illustrators; and readers of fiction do not expect the same exact service. Many public libraries omit the book number from these books and find the plan very satisfactory. There may be, however, some confusion on the part of the reader when he finds no call number on the catalog cards for fiction. All cards, other than fiction, have a symbol by which the reader asks for the books. The words "Copy author and title," or the word "Fiction," stamped where the call number usually appears, might solve the difficulty.

Marking with the call number.—The second method of locating books on the shelves, that of adding a distinctive symbol to each book, may require more work in the catalog department, but it will doubtless save both time and effort at some other point along the line in which the book travels. Time may be saved in getting books ready for the shelves by the first method but it may be wasted in finding them. The book number itemizes a work completely and provides it with a shorthand designation which can be used in place of the author and title; less thought is required of the assistant who shelves the books; a mechanical sign is furnished which is sure to place the book in its proper pigeon hole; the work is done once for all because the number is assigned when the book passes through the catalog department. No matter how many times it is handled thereafter, its location on the shelves is clearly indicated even if someone has considered the author to be Gilbert Murray instead of Euripides.

Both methods have strong advocates. Some libraries feel that book numbers are altogether superfluous; that while exact order may not always be maintained on the shelves, especially where readers have direct access to the books, this inconvenience is slight compared to the work involved in assigning them. The point is also made that time is saved when the book number is not written on book cards, catalog cards, and other records.

Those who favor the use of book numbers are convinced that the time saved by the catalog department in not assigning them is more than offset by the hours lost in hunting for books misplaced on the shelves and by the inconvenience of having no complete symbol for the charging system and other records. The reader, who has little time to copy authors and titles and specify editions, usually appreciates call numbers. He has a far better chance of getting what he asks for.

The library of twenty thousand volumes or less would find no difficulty in either method because it would be an easy matter to revise the shelves frequently and the number of books in any one class would not be great enough to cause confusion even if they were not in exact order. Many of the larger public libraries are not using the book number for fiction but still use it for all nonfiction books. This is a compromise which might be

made by those libraries which are anxious to try the no-book-number plan and are not yet wholly convinced of its advantages. Some libraries, after discarding book numbers for nonfiction, found the results unsatisfactory and have gone back to them.

4. **Cutter numbers.**—C. A. Cutter, who furnished many aids to catalogers, worked out the first set of tables for assigning these numbers. The author's last name is matched with the letter combinations in the tables. The initial letter of his surname is retained for the book number but the rest of the letters are replaced by the appropriate numbers taken from the table. If we look up the name W. J. Rolfe in the section of the table of book numbers here reprinted, we find that it is represented by R747, since W. Rolfe will come after M. Rolfe but will precede Roli. Rolleston would be R751, and Romanes would be 758 because it falls between Roman and Romano.

	Rol	744
	Role	745
	Rolf	746
	Rolfe, M.	747
	Roli	748
	Roll	749
	Rolles	751
	Rollo	755
	Roman	758
	Romano	759
Section from the Cutter-Sanborn three-figure table:		

The table usually recommended today is the Cutter-Sanborn three-figure alphabetic table, which is an independent scheme, not an enlargement of the Cutter two-figure table. Full directions for its use are sent with each set of tables. The Cutter two-figure alphabetic order table is suitable for libraries of less than five thousand volumes but should not be purchased for larger libraries. If, however, the two-figure table has already been in use in the library and an extension is needed, a Cutter three-figure table, which is an enlargement of the two-figure, is available.

The student should assign numbers to actual books in order to understand how the symbol is selected. The Cutter numbers have been worked out to meet the requirements of brevity, simplicity, and utility (i.e., capacity to serve some purpose besides that of an arbitrary mark).

Length of the number.—Book numbers based on the Cutter-Sanborn table may be shortened by using one letter and two figures in all classes except fiction and individual biography. The symbol for W. J. Rolfe then becomes R74 instead of R747. The number of books by authors whose names begin with the same letter and whose publications classify in exactly the same place is too small to make three figures necessary except in large libraries.

Small libraries may use a very simple book number. The initial of the

author is sometimes enough, but if more is needed a figure or a title letter may be added, e.g.,

R for the first book by Rolfe in a definite class
 R2 for the second book by Rolfe in the same class
 R3 for the third book by Rolfe, and so on
 or
 R, Rb, Rc, Rd, and so on.

In reference and university libraries the advantages of brevity and simplicity may be outweighed by the value of a number which gives added information or effects a closer grouping and which thus enables the librarian to make available more quickly the books on a special phase of a subject. Therefore, these libraries often use elaborate numbers.

Book number dependent on catalog entry.—Before the Cutter author table is used, the correct author entry for the book in hand must have been determined. No book number can be assigned until the main entry has been chosen, since the arrangement of books on the shelves depends on the same author entry as the one used in the catalog. In other words, the Cutter number must always be taken from the main catalog entry unless a special exception is made.

Distinctive call numbers.—After the Cutter number has been chosen, it is added to the class mark to form the call number. Should the identical call number be already noted in the shelf list, some variation must be made since no two call numbers should be exactly alike if each title is to have a distinctive symbol. If there are seventy-five thousand books in the library, all of which differ in author, subject, title, or edition, there must be seventy-five thousand symbols by which books can be distinguished.

(1) **DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN CONFLICTING CALL NUMBERS.**—Authors who have the same surname and whose books are classified together would often have the same call number if some differentiating mark were not introduced. Such authors can be distinguished by adding an extra figure to the Cutter numbers. The alphabetical arrangement may not be exact under these circumstances, especially if the books do not come into the library at the same time. The number added is not taken from the Cutter table; it is added arbitrarily, but with reference to the forename of the author. For example:

S616 for Sinclair, B. W. Big timber
 S6165 for Sinclair, May. The belfry

If there are many books by May Sinclair and only one by B. W. Sinclair, the order given above may be reversed.

The same method of distinguishing authors is used when two names, not identical, happen to take the same Cutter number in the table.

(2) **TITLE DISTINCTIONS.**—Two books written by the same author

and falling into the same class are distinguished by adding to the Cutter number the first letter of the first word of the title not an article. For example: W. J. Rolfe's *Principles of teaching English literature* would take the call number 820.7 R74p to distinguish it from his *Elementary study of English* also classified in 820.7. A title letter is commonly added to Cutter numbers for fiction because of the number of books in that one class.

Books known by more than one title are distinguished by using the title mark for the best known one. This will insure that all copies of the work are brought together, e.g.,

811 L85h Longfellow. Song of Hiawatha

In this case the title mark is taken from *Hiawatha* as the name by which the various editions of this poem can be conveniently shelved.

Two titles by the same author in the same class and beginning with the same letter are distinguished by adding the second letter of the title, e.g.,

842 M18m Maeterlinck. Mary Magdalene
842 M18mi Maeterlinck. Miracle of Saint Anthony
842 M18mo Maeterlinck. Monna Vanna

Titles beginning with the same two letters are distinguished by selecting two letters from each title so as to secure alphabetical order, e.g.,

P844m Porter, Eleanor. Miss Billy
P844mb Porter, Eleanor. Miss Billy—married
P844md Porter, Eleanor. Miss Billy's decision

Numbers for special classes of books—

(1) EDITIONS.—It is important that all editions of the same title be kept together so that they may be used comparatively. These may be marked in various ways.

One plan is to use the Cutter number in the regular way, adding to it, first, the title letter and, second, the number of any edition after the first, as:

625.7 S73t Spalding. Text-book on roads and pavements. 1894.
625.7 S73t3 Spalding. Text-book on roads and pavements.
3d ed., rev. and enl. 1908.
625.7 S73t4 Spalding. Text-book on roads and pavements.
4th ed., rev. and enl. 1912.

If the title letter *t* was not added when the first book was received, an *a* should be added before adding the number of the edition. This will guard against any other title coming between the editions. For example:

625.7
S73

S73
S73a3
S73a4

Another plan is to use the date of publication after the Cutter number.

625.7	625.7	625.7
S73	S73	S73
	1908	1912

This makes a longer call number, and for that reason it is not so often used by public libraries. The date has a real meaning which is not apparent if the first plan is used. It is used by large libraries especially for shelving books in Science.

(2) CRITICISMS, COMMENTARIES.—A criticism or commentary should be shelved with the work to which it refers. In this case the Cutter number is taken from the author of the book criticized and not from the author of the criticism. For example, the book number for *The moral system of Dante's Inferno* by W. H. V. Reade is taken from Dante so that this work may stand with other works about Dante's *Inferno*. The call number then becomes 851 D19i. So that this book may be shelved after all the editions of the original work and with other criticism, the letter *Y* (indicating criticism) as well as the initial letter of the author's name is added to the book number. The number then becomes 851 D19i.Yr. The same plan and symbol may be applied whenever it is desirable to have a commentary, criticism, or biography follow the original work. If it is desirable to keep dictionaries in another group, *Z* may be used. A Dante dictionary would be marked 851 D192.Z. Some libraries omit the period before the letters *Y* and *Z* and write D192Z.

(3) BIOGRAPHY.—Those libraries which adopt an alphabetical arrangement by biographee for individual biography will take the Cutter number from the subject, or biographee, rather than from the author of the book. The object is to bring all the biographies of one person together rather than to scatter them under the names of the authors writing about them. All books about Lincoln must be under *L*, all about Washington under *W*, and so on. These are then arranged secondarily under author by adding the initial of the author. For example:

Charnwood, G. R. B., baron. Abraham Lincoln. L736c
 Johnstone, W. J. Abraham Lincoln, the Christian. L736j
 Lamon, W. H. Recollections of Abraham Lincoln. L736l
 Mace, W. H. Lincoln, the man of the people. L736m.

Sometimes biographies are valued highly for the information they contribute to the field of endeavor, such as art, music, or philosophy, to which the subject of the biography devoted his life. Librarians frequently think it more useful to classify these biographies with art, music, or philosophy, as the case may be, rather than with general biography; in a special or departmental library this would be the common practice. Here again the book number should be taken from the person written about rather than

from the author of the book. For example, *George Inness: the man and his art*, by Elliott Daingerfield, would be classified in 759.1, and in order to keep all of the lives of Inness together under this class, the book number is taken from Inness. The call number thus becomes 759.1 I58d. The *d* is taken from Daingerfield.

If the classification schedule does not provide separate classes for individual and collective biography, a book number may be used to separate the two groups. The book number A1 may be used for collective biographies followed by a letter for the author's name.

(4) TRANSLATIONS.—If a public library using Dewey does not subdivide its Literature by periods but keeps, for example, all Greek poetry together, some provision may be needed for assembling the translations of one title by language. This may be done by adding a letter designating the language after the Cutter number, as in the following cases where 883 H76 is the number for Homer:

Iliad, tr. by Pope. 883 H76iEp
Ilias; übersetzt von Voss. 883 H76iGv
L'Iliade; tradotta da Monti. 883 H76iIm

In the above illustrations *E*, *G*, and *I* added after the Cutter number stand for English, German, and Italian translations respectively, and the small letters following are the initial letters of the names of the translators.

5. **Special schemes.**—Several special book-number schemes have been developed and are described in Barden's *Book numbers*.² They apply particularly to the arrangement of the books by and about an author. In the thirteenth and earlier editions of the Decimal classification special schemes for Shakespeare, Spenser, and Milton were provided.

6. **Special location marks.**—Books belonging in a special room or group, or forming a special collection, are often designated by a letter prefixed to the call number, e.g., *M* for musical scores, *J* for juvenile literature, and *R* for reference books.

Symbols are also used to designate the special shelving of a book which, because of its format, cannot stand on the regular octavo shelves; e.g., *F* added to a call number designates the book as a folio. This letter immediately tells the assistant in search of the book that it will be shelved in a special section. Dummies are sometimes used to show that books are shelved out of their regular place. These dummies usually contain the call number, author, and title, and give a reference showing where the book may be found. Another means of identifying books shelved out of order is to keep a card list of them. This is an aid to the assistants but not so useful to readers. Such a list in sheet form, typed and posted at the ends of the cases in the stack or open-shelf room, is a better device. A list

² *Op. cit.*, p.20-29.

of dummies should be kept, or a note of the irregular location should be made in the shelf list.

7. Library of Congress author notation.—The Library of Congress often makes a book number an integral part of the class number as we have noted in studying its classification system. Therefore, great importance is attached to the use of this symbol when the L. C. scheme of classification is used.

The Cutter three-figure table is used by the Library of Congress as a basis for assigning numbers to fiction, and the Cutter-Sanborn three-figure table to all other classes, but there are numerous exceptions because neither one is strictly followed. Many tables in the classification scheme serve as general guides in the use of the symbol, but there are almost no precedents for special contingencies.

The Library of Congress always employs a decimal point before the first Cutter number, as DF951.T3B4.

The most common rules and variations used by the Library of Congress are set forth in a pamphlet by Anna C. Laws, *Author notation in the Library of Congress*.³ The author designation is reduced to a minimum if there is only a small number of books in a class, but it may be much extended in another group if the entries are numerous. Double Cutter numbers are often used; the first number is part of the classification scheme and is used to designate the subdivision within a class; the second is the book number designating the author. This same plan might be adopted in connection with any classification system wherever it is desirable to arrange a large subject alphabetically by topics or by smaller subdivisions. An alphabetical scheme might be followed for a class like 663 in Dewey by giving Cutter numbers to Chocolate, Cocoa, Coffee, Soda water, Tea, etc. The same method is suggested under 394.268 in the Decimal classification.

II. The Shelf List

Since every symbol which stands for a book must be distinctive, i.e., stand for an individual book, there must be an accessible key to all such call numbers. This record is to be found in the shelf list.

1. Definition.—The shelf list is a catalog of books in the order in which they stand on the shelves. Each title is represented by a card giving the author, title, edition, number of volumes (if more than one), number of copies (if more than one), call number and such other items as the library deems necessary. The call number determines the arrangement of the cards in the shelf list in the same way as it has already determined the arrangement of the books on the shelves.

³ U.S. Library of Congress. Classification Division. *Author notation in the Library of Congress*, by Anna C. Laws (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1920) 18p.

2. Uses.—The shelf list is a very important record for all departments of the library. It is not generally used by the public except when parts of it are consulted or duplicated to furnish a classified catalog. The shelf list serves in the following ways:

As a key to the call numbers.—Knowing the call number, one can ascertain from the shelf list the author and title for which that call number stands.

As a check against duplicate call numbers.—As a new call number is assigned, the shelf list record must be consulted to see whether that number has already been used.

As an aid to the classifier.—In a general but systematic way, this list furnishes the classifier with a record of all the subjects represented in the book collection. It is the classification schedule filled in with book titles. The scheme is no longer a skeleton; the pigeon holes into which the books fit are occupied, and there is before the classifier, in card form, a workable and logical display of the titles in the library.

The classifier has in this list an invaluable tool to aid in insuring uniformity and consistency in his work. By reference to it he can see at a glance just what books have been classified in a given group, how certain subjects are growing, what types of books are being assembled in a certain division, how the whole collection is developing, and what precedents are being established from which rules for classification may be formulated and policies fixed.

The shelf list furnishes a guide in bringing together closely related books and also shows the extent to which classes have been divided and subdivided. This is the record on which the classifier depends to keep the collection harmonious. If he does not consult it, inconsistencies may result. Thus, one book on the subject of the gold mines in South Africa might be classified with other books on gold mining, and the next one might be put with general mining books arranged by country. When quantities of books are being classified, there must be such a record to furnish safety zones where one may pause and survey the road before attempting to traverse it; the shelf list is such an oasis for the classifier.

As a classified catalog.—This use of the shelf list is elaborated in Chapter XII in which the classified catalog is discussed. The use of analytical entries in the shelf list is also discussed in that chapter.

As an inventory record.—It is customary for libraries to take inventory from time to time by checking each book on the shelves against the shelf list. Every copy must be accounted for, whether it is in the stack, at the bindery, in the open-shelf room, on the reference shelves, on the mending shelves, or charged out to an individual or an agency. As a result of this inventory the library has a thorough revision of its shelves and a clear record of missing books.

As a measuring stick for the book collection.—The librarian can, through the shelf list, survey the book collection, know the proportion between the classes represented, see the weakness and strength of certain subjects, and be guided in making additions. By watching the shelf list, one can gauge the size and character of a class and save an overzealous assistant from using too large a share of the budget for works in that class. If there is a demand for books on the drama, for example, there is great danger of overloading in this group and so of getting an overstock of volumes which may have only temporary value.

As a historical and statistical record of the book collection.—Since the shelf card shows the number of copies of each title, the library may have here a history of every book: the number of copies purchased, the number lost or discarded, the number in the central library, in the branches and other agencies.

As an insurance record.—As the shelf list is the inventory of a library's bookstock, it is the record of most use for insurance purposes in case part or all of the books should be destroyed by fire.

As furnishing subject bibliographies.—Should the library wish to print a catalog of its books in any class, the shelf list can furnish the copy. A list of books on architecture could readily be compiled from the shelf list for the 720's. The shelf list is the only record in the library which gives this logical grouping of titles unless a classified catalog is maintained.

3. Rules for compiling.—With very few exceptions the shelf list should follow the entry on the catalog card; therefore an exact duplicate or an abridgment of the catalog card furnishes the shelf card. All rules applying to the choice of main entry for an author catalog apply to the shelf list. Either the shelf list card should be made when the book is cataloged, or the catalog card should furnish the copy for this record. Some libraries use L. C. cards in the shelf list.

4. Form of the shelf list.—The shelf list has been treated here as a card record because that is the usual form. There are, however, some libraries in which a sheet record is used for continuations. There is a convenience in using this loose-leaf book form for such items as well as for depository sets of United States documents.

5. Number of entries on a card.—Every title and every edition that has a distinctive call number must have its own shelf card.

6. Arrangement of the cards.—The shelf cards should be arranged first by class number and second by book number. Book numbers are arranged decimally, as:

M46
M46e
M46g
M462

M465
M465p
M467
M47

In libraries where no book numbers are used, the shelf cards are arranged within each class first by author and second by title.

7. Shelf list as an accession record.—In many libraries in which the accession book has been discarded, the shelf list has been made to serve some of its functions. Items such as cost, source, and date of purchase are added to the shelf card, thus making it serve as an accessions record as well.

8. Union shelf list.—This term is used for a shelf list in which is recorded the location of all *copies* of all books in the collection. Here is brought together in one place a directory of the books which make up the library. They can be traced to branches, departments, stations, and other agencies since the card for every title indicates for each copy its place in the library system.

The shelf list record for each title in an outside agency is kept on a card separate from the central shelf card, but it is filed in the union shelf list immediately after the central card for the same title. It is convenient to have a colored card for the outside agencies.

The public libraries of Cleveland, Detroit and Los Angeles, to name only three cases, have found no serious difficulty if the shelf list is merely checked in pencil to show that a branch has the title. No copy or accession numbers are added to the shelf list card in the union shelf list. The check is removed only when the last copy is discarded and is not to be replaced.

This simplified system has been in force in Cleveland for a number of years. It has saved the time of several clerks and made it possible to clear branch books every few days. Each branch assigns its own copy numbers. Los Angeles states that this plan saves twenty to thirty per cent of the time formerly needed for the job.

9. Shelf list and want-list.—A sheet shelf list of continuations can be made to serve as a "want-list" as well as a shelf list, by making the complete bibliographical record on the shelf list. Enter here, as the set is cataloged, all the volumes, supplements, indexes, etc., which have ever been issued, and indicate in pencil opposite those volumes not now in the library the word "wanting". By this method the shelf list is an excellent check to be used in filling in missing parts and volumes.

This shelf list may be on either cards or sheets. Bound or completed volumes of serials appear in the shelf list record, but current issues are usually entered only in the serial checklist or visible index. All index volumes, supplements, and extra volumes should be carefully recorded.

Sheets should be kept in loose-leaf binders for ready use. Where **sheet**

records are used, reference cards should be inserted in the regular shelf list referring to the entries in the sheet shelf list.

10. Shelf list at the Library of Congress.—For many years the Library of Congress maintained a sheet shelf list.

For the sake of economy without sacrifice of efficiency, it was decided last year to adopt the principle of a single shelflist on cards, instead of maintaining two, one on sheets and one on cards. . . . This is a heavy task . . . but one that will ultimately result in a definite economy of time and labor and incidentally in the creation of a classed catalog . . . and in complementing the official dictionary catalog.⁴

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SAWYER, H. P. *comp.* The library and its contents. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1925.

Five articles on the shelf list and the shelf versus the accessions record, originally published in 1878, 1899, and 1901, p. 411-27.

Some Practical Questions

1. Why would it not be satisfactory to arrange books on the shelves under each class by accession numbers?
2. How much information should a shelf list provide?
3. Give some reasons why the shelf list is sometimes kept in a fireproof case or vault.
4. What statistics can be compiled from the shelf list?
5. What would be the advantage of keeping the juvenile shelf cards in a separate file from the adult cards?
6. Explain how the shelf list may be used as a subject catalog.
7. Is it necessary for the users of the library to understand Cutter numbers?
8. If no call numbers are used on the books, how can statistics be kept of books circulated by classes?
9. Cutter numbers are less necessary in a small library than in a large library. Explain.
10. Explain how book numbers may be used to bring about a second subject arrangement under a class number.

VII

The Catalog

- | | |
|--|---|
| I. Function and Form of the Catalog | III. Catalog Codes |
| 1. Function of the catalog | 1. A.L.A. rules |
| 2. Form of the catalog | 2. Official code |
| 3. Card catalog the most generally accepted form | 3. Other codes and manuals |
| 4. Unit card | IV. The Expanding Catalog |
| 5. Uniformity of catalog cards | 1. Size of the catalog and suggested eliminations |
| II. Catalog Based on Principles | 2. Division of the catalog |
| 1. Technique and the cataloger | V. Some Definitions |
| 2. Types of catalog | |

I. Function and Form of the Catalog

We have now to consider cataloging the books so that we can get at their authors and their subject matter quickly. This entails a discussion of the catalog as a whole.

1. Function of the catalog.—It is the function of the catalog:

1. To record each work in a library by author, translator, editor, illustrator, commentator, series, or by any other person, body, or name under which a reader might look, and to the extent that is desirable for a particular library
2. To arrange author entries in such a way that all the works of one writer will be found together under the same name, a procedure that makes it possible for readers either to find a specific work or to survey the literary output of an author as represented in the library
3. To record each work in the library, and even parts of a work, under the subjects of which it treats
4. To arrange subject entries so that like topics will fall together and related topics will be correlated
5. To record titles of works when necessary
6. To employ cross references by which a reader may be guided from one entry in the catalog to another
7. To provide a description of each book by giving title, imprint, and collation; also notes when necessary
8. To list the call numbers by which books may be located or obtained

While this is the function of the catalog, it does not follow that all catalogs are made in such fulness. The purpose of the library, the needs of

readers and staff, and the budget must all be considered when planning any library catalog.

An executive, Dr. Arthur E. Bostwick, said in this connection:

It is clear, I think, that both the methods and results of cataloguing ought not to be immune from modification to adapt them to local peculiarities. Some public libraries are used so much for scholarly or antiquarian research that their catalogues need to approximate that of a university library; others are of so popular a nature that they hardly need a catalogue at all.¹

With these functions in mind, one clearly understands how the catalog will, through these various entries, supplement the classification from many points of view. Where the classification brings books together to reveal their subject relationship, the catalog can reveal not only one subject, but all the subjects which are treated under one cover as well as authors, titles, editors, translators, etc. Unlike the classification which involves the placing of volumes, the catalog contains merely printed or written registrations of the books.

2. Form of the catalog.—The first thing to consider in beginning a catalog is what form it is to take. The two most generally accepted are the card and the book form. The librarian has to take into account the following requirements in deciding which form to prefer:

1. A catalog should be flexible, because new entries² must be added constantly to the catalog as books are added to the library
2. The catalog should be kept up to date
3. Like entries should stand together. For example, an entry for a new book by Sir Harry H. Hamilton must be filed with other entries already in the catalog under this name
4. It should be possible to remove from the catalog entries for withdrawn books
5. It should be possible to change entries with the development of the book collection. New terms supplant old ones, and these require a readjustment of subject entries; changes in classification necessitate changes in the call numbers
6. The catalog should be as accessible as possible to readers and staff members alike
7. There is a demand for a catalog which can be consulted outside the library, that is, which can be taken home by readers

Card form.—A catalog in card form is one in which each entry appears on a separate card; in other words, each entry is a unit which can be shifted, sorted, and arranged in any way desired. The cards are filed in trays which make up the catalog cabinet. Such a file allows endless intercalation. It meets most of the needs specified above because:

1. Cards are flexible units

¹ A. E. Bostwick, *Library essays* (N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1920), p.419.

² The term *entry* is used to signify (1) the complete catalog card, and (2) the heading used on the card which is designated as an author entry, a title or a subject entry, etc.

2. New entries can be added at any time; therefore the catalog can be kept alive
3. Like entries can be filed together since each entry is on a movable unit
4. Cards can be removed at any time; therefore the catalog can be kept in good working order by withdrawing the entries for discarded books
5. Cards can be removed and changed or be replaced by new cards; therefore the catalog can be made to keep pace with changes in new terms used as headings
6. A card catalog is accessible within narrow limits, since it can be consulted only in the place where the cards are located. It is not portable except as single trays are portable
7. As it cannot be taken home, it cannot meet the requirements of (7) in the first group

Book form.—A catalog in book form is one in which entries are printed in page form and bound into a volume or volumes. The entries appearing in a card catalog may, at a stated time, be put into permanent book form. The catalog then becomes a closed record. No new entries can be added unless the whole is reissued because the entries are not movable units. The fact that it is fixed, and therefore out of date the moment it is off the press, proves that it cannot meet most of the requirements listed above.

The catalog in book form does, however, have many advantages which the card catalog cannot meet. It is portable and can be consulted in any part of the library, and if not of unusual size, it can be taken home to be perused at leisure. It is as easy to handle as any other book. The entries are so grouped that the eye can scan a page quickly in contrast to the relatively slow process of turning over one card after another, a process which at times discourages the reader and leads him to ask his question of the library assistant rather than to find out for himself from the card catalog. Book catalogs occupy much less space than card catalogs, an item of some importance in large libraries. The cost of printing a catalog in book form is considerable. The meticulous work of setting the copy, because of lack of continuity of matter, makes the work both laborious and painstaking and puts the cost out of reach of the average library. Any librarian hesitates to spend so much money on a tool which will be out of date almost immediately.

Library bulletins of accessions.—In order to meet the demand for catalogs which can be taken home, some libraries print bulletins containing lists of books added each quarter or each month. Such bulletins, when bound and supplied with an annual index, provide a form of book catalog which will meet the needs of the reader and make a very useful adjunct to the card catalog. They in no way take the place of the complete card catalog because the entries are not cumulated nor are they strictly up to date.

Cumulated book catalogs.—A compromise between the card and book

forms is the cumulated book catalog. In a catalog of this kind the entries are kept in type; that is, the printer preserves his type after it has been cast in single lines. These lines furnish the movable unit and make possible the intercalation of other lines. By this method the entries are kept up to date in type and are ready for reprinting at stated intervals. This gives the public a cumulated catalog in book form within limits. This method of printing, employing the linotype, is used by the H. W. Wilson Company in publishing its various cumulative catalogs and indexes.

Sheaf form.—The sheaf catalog is one in which cards or slips are put into a loose leaf binder of the same size as the cards.³ This form is frequently found in the libraries abroad. It has some advantages over both book and card catalogs, but it will not find much favor in America as long as printed cards are used. It would be difficult to fix these into a loose leaf binder and the filing would be tedious.

3. Card catalog the most generally accepted form.—Since the card catalog has been generally accepted in American libraries, it is the form considered throughout this text. It is well to remember, however, that a card catalog can at any time be printed in book form. It is the basic form of any catalog, because no catalog, even that in book form, can be accumulated into a complete file unless entries are first prepared on slips or cards. It is only by means of a flexible base that entries can be properly intercalated.

Content of the card.—The technical description of a book may be exemplified by the following details from a Library of Congress card. The style of card illustrated is typical of the cards used in many library catalogs. The card may, of course, be shortened in certain particulars if the items as given are considered superfluous for a particular library. Recommendations as to how such a catalog card might be abbreviated are given on page 225.

1. *Author heading:* Gosnell, Charles Francis, 1909-
2. *Title, including author statement:* Spanish personal names; principles governing their formation and use which may be presented as a help for catalogers and bibliographers, by Charles F. Gosnell.
3. *Imprint:* Washington, D. C., Inter-American bibliographical and library association, 1938.
4. *Collation:* xi, 112p. 23^{cm}. (*Half title:* Inter-American bibliographical and library association. Publications, ser. I, vol. 3)
5. *Notes:* Issued also without series note.
Written as a thesis for the degree of M.S. at the School of library service of Columbia university. cf. Acknowledgement.
"Bibliography of sources": p.[89]-101.
6. *Tracing:* 1. Cataloging. 2. Names, Personal—Spanish. I. Title.

³ This form is described by H. A. Sharp in his *Cataloguing; a textbook for use in libraries* (2d ed., rev. and enl.; London: Grafton, 1937), p.173-79.

025.3 Gosnell, Charles Francis, 1909-

G67

Spanish personal names; principles governing their formation and use which may be presented as a help for catalogers and bibliographers, by Charles F. Gosnell. Washington, D. C., Inter-American bibliographical and library association, 1938.

xi, 112 p. 23^{cm}. (*Half-title*: Inter-American bibliographical and library association. Publications, ser. 1, vol. 3)

Issued also without series note.

Written as a thesis for the degree of M. S. at the School of Library service of Columbia university. *of*. Acknowledgement.

"Bibliography of sources": p. 89-101.

1. Cataloging. 2. Names, Personal—Spanish. I. Title.

Library of Congress



Z695.G67 1938

38-35946

[3]

[929.4] 025.3

(1) **AUTHOR.**—It will be noted that the author is given the place of prominence on the card. This is as it should be since the author entry is the basic entry. It is called in cataloging parlance the *main entry*. The author's personal name is always inverted like a name in a directory. The family name or surname is followed by the forenames, if it is possible to establish them, so that authors of the same family may be easily distinguished and all books by the same author may be brought together, no matter what variations in name may appear on the title pages of his books.

(2) **TITLE.**—The title, including the edition, is the next item on the card. The fulness and importance of the title were discussed in Chapter II. All titles in foreign languages are entered in the language used on the title page, but if the library wishes, a translation may follow the title or be added to the card as a note. This is rarely done except for languages using non-roman characters.

(3) **IMPRINT.**—These items have already been treated in Chapter II. On the card they follow the title but are separated from it.

(4) **COLLATION.**—The collation is not a part of the title page but serves to describe the book more fully and to aid the reader in his selection of books through the medium of the card catalog.

(5) **NOTES.**—The make-up of the individual book determines whether and what notes are used.⁴ The most commonly used notes record contents and bibliographies or references.

⁴ For a study of these descriptive notes see H. D. MacPherson, *Some practical problems in cataloging* (N. Y.: Wilson, 1936), p.95-103.

Other details on the card consist of

1. *Call number:* 025.3 G67
2. *Library of Congress call number:* Z695.G67 1938
3. *D. C. number:* 025.3 for preference; alternatively 929.4
4. *L. C. order number:* 38-35946

4. Unit card—

Definition.—A unit card is one which, when duplicated without change of form, can serve not only as an author card, but also as a subject, title, or added entry card. Printed and mimeographed cards are naturally unit cards.

L. C. unit cards.—The printed cards of the Library of Congress are widely used as unit cards. In the Library of Congress itself these cards are used for all purposes except the series entry, but many other libraries use a unit card for the series entry also.

Perhaps no cooperative movement has so revolutionized library work as this scheme of cataloging, which has extended the expert service of the Library of Congress to every library in the country that wishes to use it. These cards are treated in detail in Chapters XV and XVI.

Unit cards replace old types of cards.—Before the printed card service was inaugurated by the Library of Congress, the unit form of card was not in general use. On the manuscript cards formerly used and still to be found in many library catalogs, entries were shortened, information was curtailed, and each card was made in a form suited to its special purpose. The author card was considered to be the main card and corresponded to the unit card as that is now used. Title, added entry, and series cards were made, each according to a different model, making it necessary for the cataloger to learn a variety of card forms. Now it is usual, except in very small libraries, for the cataloger to make only one card and to have it duplicated as many times as necessary to catalog a book fully.

Since 1901, the unit card has grown in favor, and its uniformity and accessibility in printed form have materially lessened the work of the cataloger. By reason of its use, the reader has before him a catalog, each entry of which is full.

Value of the unit card.—The value of the unit card may be summarized as follows:

1. Gives the reader a card containing adequate information under any entry
2. Provides a standard card which may be used in library records other than the catalog
3. Relieves the cataloger of unnecessary mechanical work
4. Is less expensive because cards can be multiplied at less cost than is possible if many models are used
5. Saves revision when duplicated by mechanical methods and insures a more accurate set of cards for each book

6. Can be purchased from the Library of Congress for very many titles
7. Is the form adopted by libraries that print catalog cards
8. Makes cooperative cataloging possible
9. Saves much explanation in training clerical assistants

5. Uniformity of catalog cards.—The unit card of the Library of Congress has furnished a standard as to form, size, and style of card. Naturally libraries which make their own unit cards will want to conform to this model although they may not care to use the same amount of bibliographical detail. The unit card has been adopted after careful experimentation as the most convenient and economical form.

The card catalog seeks to preserve the appearance the entries would have if they were listed on the page of a book; therefore, each card must present uniformity of style and structure. The card catalog must be looked upon as a publication of the library. The fact that it is in card form does not discount its importance in this respect. The same painstaking editing given to any literary production should go into its preparation. Just as a book catalog is printed with uniform indentation and spacing, so each card follows a definite style for the sake of uniformity. Card and book entries differ in that each card, being a separate unit, must bear the heading under which it is filed, while in the catalog in book form the heading need appear only once on a page where two or more entries belong under it.

If a number of catalog cards are placed one below the other on a flat surface, their close resemblance to a page from a book catalog can be seen at once. By photographing such an outlay a book catalog can be prepared quickly and accurately.

II. Catalog Based on Principles

The multiplicity of entries which must be used in the compilation of a catalog is the source of real technical problems for the cataloger. To choose, arrange, correlate and harmonize the information which must appear on the catalog card is the crux of the whole problem.

1. Technique and the cataloger.—The cataloger must be a technician as well as an analyst and must know the catalog itself thoroughly. He must know book technique, be skilled in its application, watchful of technical matters in his own work and in that of others, sensitive to flaws, appreciative of good work, and willing to develop his problem only as rapidly as practical conditions make advisable. Catalogers often divorce speed from accuracy; whereas in fact the two should be fellow workers. It is not thoroughness which makes work a burden; it is overscrupulousness, letting nonessentials overshadow the salient points.

To cope with such a particular technical problem necessarily requires prodigious care, unlimited patience and unflinching accuracy. There must be sound methods to serve the mental side of cataloging and also a tech-

nique which will allow for thousands of books to be transferred from shelves to readers, from department to department, and from schools, homes, and stations. There will be auxiliary records to the catalog which must be maintained with accuracy and precision.

Too much emphasis cannot be placed on attention to necessary details, but there is no point in the process of library work in which so great judgment must be exercised as in dealing with details that must be reduced to a minimum. New records should not be started unless their necessity is proved and their upkeep assured. Experience has proved that a record once started must be rigorously maintained or it becomes worthless. The cataloger must watch every link in the chain of operations and not develop one thing out of proportion to others. It is false economy, for example, to build up a barricade of red tape in order to protect an inaccurate worker or to institute elaborate records which require hours of time to maintain but which provide for a case so unusual that it is out of proportion to the error which might occur were such a file not kept.

The cataloger cannot afford to become so engrossed in technique as to lose sight of the aims of his work. There is nothing progressive in the confusion of processes with principles, in the disregard of larger issues. "The letter killeth and the spirit giveth life." To preserve a sane and wholesome attitude towards his work is essential if the cataloger wishes to hold the right perspective, keep abreast of the times, and maintain the poise and patience which are required of every cataloger. The cataloger should possess the best traits of a scholar, an administrator, and a good clerical worker, and must have such a clear conception of his work that nothing can interfere with the proper balance of these traits. Clerks and typists can carry many of the details connected with the preparation of catalog cards and so leave catalogers free to attend to the professional side of the work, the side that calls for the exercise of judgment, the making of decisions, and the accepting of responsibility.

The catalog must be constructed on a scientific basis. It must be founded on rules and regulations that insure uniformity and accuracy so that it will be a dependable tool. It should be as logical as the classification itself is. That is to say, its development must follow policies which guarantee a systematic and orderly array of information about books and which fix limits so that the work can be held within certain bounds. There is a tendency for such standards to grow steadily more exacting, partly through the influence of the Library of Congress and partly because of the share libraries take in cooperative cataloging.

J. C. M. Hanson said that the catalog

cannot be developed according to methods which may serve in the compilation of a census, or in the mechanical handling of articles of merchandise. In dealing

with such material a proper organization, distribution, and division of labor usually solves the problem. Not so in cataloging, where books have to be dealt with as literature. Here the intellect comes into play with all its niceties, and while several minds may work at different parts of a catalog, there must also be a central co-ordinating influence to insure harmonious development. It is for the purpose of maintaining this co-ordination and harmony that so many rules, regulations, and guiding principles are laid down.⁵

There must be safety measures for both the makers and the users of a card catalog. To maintain sound, friendly relations with its readers and to protect itself against criticism which will inevitably arise when a miscellaneous public is working with a little known technical tool, the library will need to formulate its policies clearly.

2. Types of catalog.—The following types of catalog are in use:

1. *Official catalog*—A catalog for the use of the library staff only. Such a catalog varies in scope depending upon the organization and type of library.
2. *Public catalog*—A catalog for public use as distinguished from the catalog limited to official use only.
3. *Author and title catalog*—Limited to author, selected titles, and series entries, with references to the form accepted from the form of author names not used.
4. *Alphabetical subject catalog*—This catalog is limited to an alphabetical list of subjects together with the cross references necessary to correlate the subjects.
5. *Dictionary catalog*—A combination of the entries in (3) and (4) in one alphabetical file.
6. *Classified or systematic catalog*—This is a subject catalog in which the entries are arranged by some recognized system of classification; the notation or classification symbol furnishes the method of arrangement. The catalog is identical in arrangement with the shelf list. It is discussed in detail in Chapter XII.

As a subject index to this catalog the L. C. list of subject headings may be used since it gives the L. C. class numbers; or, if the Decimal classification system is used, the Sears list will furnish the index to such a classified catalog. An index in card form has proved to be most useful.

7. *Auxiliary catalogs*—These are catalogs frequently provided for branch libraries, seminar rooms, children's rooms and for special collections. They may, or may not, duplicate the entries in the main catalog; they are usually maintained by the catalog department.
8. *Union catalog*—A catalog made up of entries supplied by two or more libraries, thus furnishing a record of their holdings. It is usually limited to author entries. Such a catalog may be in card or book form. A full treatment of union catalogs will be found in Downs's *Union catalogs in the United States*.⁶

⁵ J. C. M. Hanson, "The subject catalogs of the Library of Congress," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, III (September 1909), 392-93.

⁶ R. B. Downs, ed. *Union catalogs in the United States* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1942), 430p.

III. Catalog Codes

The cataloger of today is fortunate in that printed rules for cataloging are available. These have come only after long years of discussion. One echo of this discussion is the phrase "the battle of the rules" which was used in reference to the ninety-one rules compiled by Sir Anthony Panizzi and his co-workers at the British Museum Library in 1840. The same expression might well be applied to the struggles which were waged in America between the years 1876 and 1908. The early volumes of the *Library Journal* are full of discussions bearing on disputed points in cataloging; in fact, so much repetition is to be found on this subject that one may well ask whether the overemphasis of these details did not, in a measure, hurt the cause for which librarians were striving. It seemed, for a time, that the broader side of the question was quite forgotten in an overzealous endeavor to find some uniform practice for the treatment of the details. Some very definite decisions came out of all this discussion, however, so that when the Library of Congress and the Publishing Board of the American Library Association entered into an agreement in 1901 by which the Library of Congress was to print its catalog cards, a committee was ready to formulate rules which would form the basis for such work and give catalogers a code which would insure uniformity in practice.

Realizing the great advantage of having an international code, the American committee worked with a committee of British librarians and brought about an agreement on many of the rules included. If one reads the preface to the code he will better understand the history leading to this cooperation.

1. **A.L.A. rules.**—As the title indicates,⁷ the rules cover author and title entries only. This code must, therefore, be supplemented by others when subject or dictionary catalogs are under discussion.

The fact that many large libraries are using Library of Congress cards makes it desirable for libraries generally to accept this code. The swing of the pendulum towards elaborate bibliographical detail on L. C. cards created a problem for the small library and even for popular libraries of medium size which do not need the bibliographical exactitude used in the large libraries. There are signs, however, that the Library of Congress is relinquishing some of its emphasis on detailed cataloging, notably in its cards marked "brief cataloging"; this will tend to bring its work more into line with that being done in the many small and medium-sized libraries of the country.

2. **Official code.**—One code should be adopted officially for the cata-

⁷ *Catalog rules. author and title entries.* Compiled by committees of the American Library Association and the (British) Library Association. (Chicago: A.L.A., 1908), p. vi, 88p. A new edition is in preparation. A preliminary American second edition of this was published in 1941 but is now out of print.

log when it is being made. This code should be annotated when any variations or exceptions are made to its rulings. Textbooks in cataloging may well be used to elucidate the official code. It is patent that the A.L.A. *Catalog rules* should be the official code for most American libraries.

3. Other codes and manuals.—Students and catalogers should naturally become familiar with other codes and manuals.

Codes for small libraries—

(1) **FELLOWS' CATALOGING RULES.**⁸—This is an explanatory manual rather than a code of rules. It is perhaps more useful as a teacher's manual than as a code for class use. Some catalogers have found that the great emphasis given to details of writing cards makes it almost too complex for a beginner to use without confusion, while others recommend it because of its thoroughness in detail.

(2) **AKERS' SIMPLE LIBRARY CATALOGING.**⁹—This excellent book was written, according to the introduction, "to give the librarian, who lacks professional education and experience . . . the necessary directions for accessioning, classifying and cataloging a collection of printed material, in order that it may be available for use." It is a very useful book for the beginner.

(3) **JOHNSON'S MANUAL OF CATALOGING FOR SMALL LIBRARIES.**¹⁰—This is an excellent guide for small libraries that do not expect to become large. It is especially helpful for libraries that use the Wilson printed cards.

(4) **HITCHLER'S CATALOGING FOR SMALL LIBRARIES.**¹¹—This manual is a ready reference book when a simplified form of catalog is used.

Foreign codes.—J. C. M. Hanson has made a comparative study of the principal cataloging codes of the world with which the advanced student should be familiar. He says:

One cannot but feel that especially the last half-century has witnessed important advances. We need only mention the Anglo-American accord, the printed entries of the Library of Congress, the Vatican, the Prussian National Library, and other institutions, the German *Gesamtkatalog*, the publication of so many new codes of rules, each showing a willingness to learn and to benefit by the information contained in other works of a similar nature. . . .

Of the modern codes, there are three that have especially influenced the cataloging rules and methods of their own and other countries. These are the Prussian, the Anglo-American, and the Vatican codes. We have good reason to believe that new and much enlarged and improved editions of these and other codes will

⁸ J. D. Fellows, *Cataloging rules* (2d ed., rev. and enl.; N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1926), 808p.

⁹ S. G. Akers, *Simple library cataloging* (2d ed., rewritten; Chicago: A.L.A. 1933), 173p. A new edition is in course of preparation.

¹⁰ M. F. Johnson and D. E. Cook, *Manual of cataloging and classification for small and public libraries* (3d ed., rev.; N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1939), 78p.

¹¹ T. Hitchler, *Cataloging for small libraries* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1915), 316p.

lead to an even better understanding and more harmonious relations in cataloging practices.¹²

(1) **THE GERMAN CODE.**¹³—The introduction to the English translation of this code is an explanation of German cataloging practice. The policies underlying that system of cataloging are particularly important to note.

(2) **THE VATICAN CODE.**¹⁴—These rules follow those of the Library of Congress very closely. Much space is naturally given to ecclesiastical headings. It is the first code since Cutter's *Rules for a dictionary catalog* to provide rules for subject headings.

IV. The Expanding Catalog

Nearly all library catalogs go through many vicissitudes. This is to be expected because books and the ideas they contain are themselves subject to change. To attempt to guide the reading public through the catalog of a large library is a task of no small dimensions. Time creates new values which must be applied to old problems, and current events bring in questions that demand a new type of analysis. There is no beginning or ending to a flexible card file; new entries must constantly be inserted and correlated with those already in the catalog. Such a file is bound to get out of focus unless great care is exercised.

Some of those who criticize the catalog naturally have little conception of its intricacies, nor do they realize the cost in time and money which goes into its upkeep. With the increase in size comes an increase in the expense, not only of cataloging each new book, but also in the upkeep of the catalog as a whole. Cataloging often means one step forward and two steps back before uniformity and homogeneity are established.

Some of the immediate problems facing those who attempt to study the future of this tool are briefly outlined here for the sake of orienting the student in questions which must be solved by librarians and catalogers of the future.

1. **Size of the catalog and suggested eliminations.**—The size of the dictionary catalog in many of the larger libraries is causing some consternation, and librarians are demanding economies and eliminations to cut costs, save space, and lessen the burden of upkeep. Dr. Putnam has said: "There is, however, apprehension that in this form [the dictionary

¹² J. C. M. Hanson, *A comparative study of cataloging rules based on the Anglo-American code of 1908* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago pr., 1939), xiv, 144p.

¹³ *The Prussian instructions; rules for the alphabetical catalogs of the Prussian libraries*, translated from the 2d ed., authorized August 10, 1908, with an introduction and notes, by Andrew D. Osborn (Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan pr., 1938), xlii, 192p.

¹⁴ Vatican. Biblioteca Vaticana. *Norme per il catalogo degli stampati* (2. ed.; Vaticano, 1939), 490p.

catalog], with the tendency to multiply entries—including analyticals and cross references—it may break under its own weight and volume. This may conceivably lead to some limitation or modification.”¹⁵

The making of a dictionary catalog for a public library of fifty thousand volumes is neither difficult nor costly. The books present little in the way of cataloging problems since there are likely to be few if any special collections to deal with and Library of Congress cards are available for most of the titles. When, however, the library becomes larger and, above all, when it possesses a number of special collections, then cataloging becomes more complicated and readjustments of the entries already in the catalog need to be made. Filing becomes more expensive and time-consuming. The accumulation of entries under subject headings demands more time spent on subdividing or otherwise controlling them.

The problem has received some consideration abroad. Mr. Sharp quotes Dr. Madan, for many years librarian of the Bodleian, as saying:

We have learnt not to regard books in a library as all equal in appearance and all to be treated alike, as if they were a rank of drilled soldiers. The lesser books must stand back, and the greater be brought into prominence. We must make use of mental perspective, and provide digressive description. . . . The idea is that different periods of printing and different classes of books should meet with correspondingly varying treatment. . . . It is possible that the lack of progress in this matter is due to a deep-seated, but erroneous, idea that the same cataloging rules must be applied to every book in the library or collection.¹⁶

While these problems belong to the librarian to determine as matters of policy, many of them can be worked out best if the administrator and the cataloger work together. The cataloger can present the problems and make suggestions, but it is the administrator who decides what can be done in the light of the library's budget and aims.

This text cannot go into these problems in detail, but it may be helpful to list some of the measures now being taken in large libraries to keep the catalog useful and economical.

1. Information cards may be used in place of many subject cards.
2. Entries for certain types of material may be omitted from the catalog, e.g., for government documents.
3. Subject cards for books printed before a certain date may be omitted; likewise analyticals which are covered by printed indexes such as the *Essay index*.
4. "Self-cataloging" material, such as pamphlets, may be treated very simply and inexpensively.
5. Selective cataloging may be followed, as Dr. Madan suggests. Selective cata-

¹⁵ H. Putnam, "The future of the Library of Congress." In E. M. Danton, ed. *The library of to-morrow* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1939), p.182.

¹⁶ Sharp, *op. cit.*, p. 163.

logging means that appropriate rules and methods are adopted for the cataloging of different types of material.

6. Form cards may be used. The following entry, which has been used in the Cleveland Public Library, illustrates this practice.

Geology.

Manuals and elementary textbooks published before 1900 are not listed here. If wanted, consult the 550 shelf list in the Technology Department.

7. Reference may be made to the shelf list for books classified in one group by form, such as college catalogs, textbooks, etc. Such a reference card for use in the public catalog might read:

Textbooks.

For a list of textbooks in the library see 371.32 in the shelf list.

For the books, see the shelves under the above number.

Mr. Munthe, Director of the University Library at Oslo, made the following observation concerning American card catalogs:

The growth of the catalog has emphasized the difficulties of filing. And the accumulation of added information on the cards has made the bottom lines harder to read. It is probably high time to call a halt to indiscriminate piling up of bibliographical notes. Instead, one of the most important tasks now is to compile and print catalogs of the older part of the collection of the average sized public libraries, leaving the card catalog for recent acquisitions only. The public libraries of Denmark have already published such a catalog for literature up to 1900, as a cooperative project.¹⁷

2. Division of the catalog.—Some libraries have divided their dictionary catalog into two parts, an author and a subject catalog. While this division simplifies the arrangement in some respects it introduces new complications. Entries for the works of an author are filed in the author catalog, while those for works about him go in the subject catalog. This results in inconvenience to the reader and probably entails some slight increase in cataloging costs to make extra sets of cross references, subject cards for autobiographies, etc. Form headings, such as *Laws, statutes, etc.*, have no logical place in either part of the divided catalog.

V. Some Definitions

Before beginning the study of the next chapter, the student should become familiar with the following definitions:¹⁸

Added entry—A secondary entry, i.e., any other than the main author entry.

There may be added entries for editor, translator, title, subjects, etc.

¹⁷ Wilhelm Munthe, *American librarianship from a European angle* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1939), p.31.

¹⁸ Definitions are to be found in the A.L.A. *Catalog rules*, but some are included here for the convenience of students.

Analytical entry—The entry of some part of a book or of some article contained in a collection (volume of essays, serial, etc.) including a reference to the publication which contains the article or work entered

Author catalog—An alphabetical catalog of author entries, and author added entries such as editors, translators, etc. It may contain titles also, but is then more properly called an author-and-title catalog

Catalog—A list of books which is arranged according to some definite plan. As distinguished from a bibliography, it is a list of books in some library or collection.

Classed catalog, also called Classified catalog and "Catalogue raisonne"—A catalog in which the subject entries are arranged according to some scheme of classification. If the Library of Congress scheme were adopted, for example, the cards in the catalog would be arranged according to that classification. The Decimal classification can be used in the same way, that is, the entries would be arranged by Dewey numbers

Cross reference—Reference from one term or name to another.

Dictionary catalog—A catalog in which all entry words (author, title, subject, and form) are arranged in one alphabetical file. Entries are related by means of references. This catalog received its name from its similarity to a dictionary in arrangement

Entry—The registry of a book in the catalog

Entry word—The word, phrase, or name which determines the arrangement of a card in the catalog. It is often called in this text the "filing medium"

Filing medium—That part of the entry under which a card is filed

Form entry—An entry which lists books according (1) to the form in which their subject material is organized, e.g., periodicals, essays, poetry, or (2) to their literary form, as poetry, drama, fiction

Guide card—A card with a labeled tab higher than the regular cards which, when inserted in the catalog, serves as an aid in locating the cards that are filed in the tray.

Heading—The word or phrase by which the alphabetical place of an entry in the catalog is determined. It is usually the name of the author, the subject or the title. This is interpreted broadly to mean any name, phrase, term or title used as a filing medium. Naturally this name or word, or the first word of a phrase or title, determines the alphabetical place of the entries in the catalog

Main entry—The principal entry usually the author entry. In a card catalog it is the entry from which all other entries are traced.

Official catalog—A catalog kept in the catalog department for official use.

"See" reference—A direct reference from a term or name under which no entries are listed to a term or name under which entries are listed

"See also" reference—A reference to or from terms indicating where additional or allied information may be found

Specific entry—Registering a book under a heading which expresses its special subject as distinguished from entering it in a class which includes that subject

Subject—The theme or the principal themes of a book, whether stated in the title or not

Subject catalog—A catalog of subjects, whether arranged alphabetically by terms or logically by some definite system of classification.

Tracing—Indications on the main card showing what added entry cards have been made for a definite book. In most cases the exact headings as used on added entry cards are repeated as tracings, but abbreviations such as *t.* for "title" may be used. (See Fellows, rule 25. and Akers, p.90-93.) These two authorities differ as to the position of the tracing on the back of the main card. Most libraries seem to prefer the method given in Akers, i.e., on the left-hand side of the card.

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ALLEZ, G. C. "In defence of the alphabetical subject catalog." *Wilson Bulletin*, XIII (December 1938), 242-43.

Divides the card catalog into two alphabetical files: (1) Author and title entries, and (2) Subjects arranged strictly according to the L. C. list of subject headings.

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Some Practical Questions

1. Examine the card catalog in a local library and state how many questions it can answer about an individual book.
2. Examine two catalogs in book form which are available and compare the arrangement of the entries. The classified catalog of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh and the *A.L.A. catalog* will furnish good examples.
3. Would you prefer to use a book or a card catalog? State reasons for your preference.
4. What does the classification scheme accomplish for a book collection which the alphabetical catalog cannot?
5. How can entries for anonymous books be explained to the reader?
6. What are the arguments for making the catalog in card form?
7. How would you answer the question: Has the library a copy of *The light that failed* in the French language?
8. What type of book would you expect to find under the heading *Poetry* in the catalog?
9. If catalogs are divided into several different files, would the cost of upkeep be greater?

VIII

Cataloging—Author and Title Entries

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|---|--|
| I. Definition of a Dictionary Catalog | 4. Other forms of author entry |
| II. Author Entries | 5. The authority file |
| 1. Authorship determined | III. Title Added Entries |
| 2. Selection of the correct form for author entry | IV. Summary |
| 3. Corporate bodies as authors | V. Examples of Name Entries as Used by the Library of Congress |

This chapter will be limited to one part of a dictionary catalog, namely, author and title entries. The object is to orient the student of cataloging by presenting some of the problems relating to author headings, and so to render less difficult the interpretation of arbitrary rules when a definite code has to be applied.

I. Definition of a Dictionary Catalog

The dictionary catalog is a catalog made by amalgamating in one alphabetical file entries for authors, titles, subjects, and forms of literature (that is, *belles-lettres*). In other words, it is a catalog composed of an author catalog, a subject catalog, and more or less complete title and form catalogs, all interfiled. It takes its name from its resemblance to a dictionary in arrangement.

Several years ago the Library of Congress defined what it meant by cataloging by describing the various processes involved in the making of its own dictionary catalog.

By the word "cataloging" we mean the preparation of printed or other duplicated entries according to standard rules whereby these entries are rendered usable for all library and bibliographic purposes. This involves the authoritative investigation of author headings by research or correspondence; transcription of title, collation, contents, etc., according to standard rules; duplicate entry under joint authors, editors, translators, subjects, title, catchword title, etc., etc., and the integration of all these entries by a network of cross references ("see" and "see also"), tracers, authority cards, guide cards, etc., which converts the catalog from a mere assemblage of cards into an organic unit designed to meet all needs of all classes of searchers—in other words, a universal apparatus as distinguished from

mere check lists, want lists, "location" lists, inventories, and similar partial or temporary lists designed to meet only occasional or limited needs.¹

This Library of Congress definition is a rather long but full statement of the cataloger's obligation to those who come to libraries seeking information from books. The study involved in building up such an instrument must be carefully outlined so that all phases of the cataloger's art may be used to the best advantage. Few libraries can, however, maintain such a large and comprehensive catalog as that at the Library of Congress.

II. Author Entries

While Library of Congress cards are available for general library use, it should not be assumed that they will relieve the cataloger from studying the rules for author entry. It is unwise to use these cards without knowing the principles according to which they have been prepared. The cards can and should be used, but this may mean that much adjustment will have to be made before they can be filed into a catalog that is already functioning; and this adjustment involves an understanding of rules as well as the question of cross references.

There are two major problems regarding the author entry: (1) determining which person or body was responsible for writing the text, and (2) selecting the correct form of name to be used for the author.

1. **Authorship determined.**—The author is the writer of the book or the person or body responsible for its existence. As was noted in the chapter on classification, the author is not given primary consideration when books are arranged on the shelves. With the exception of books classified in Literature, subjects rather than authors determine their location. The catalog, therefore, must furnish the key to authors' names so that all books by each writer may be traced no matter what their subjects may be.

The author may be one or more persons, or authorship may be ascribed to a society or an institution. The identity of the author is usually revealed on the title page, but if it is not, the cataloger must make a careful study of the preface and introduction in an attempt to discover the author. If no clue to the authorship is found, the title must be sought in other catalogs and in various reference works to see whether they record the name of the person or body responsible for the work. Book reviews may help in this matter, but usually such information is not revealed if the author wishes to remain unknown.

Frequently the determination of the author entry involves technicalities little realized by the uninitiated. It requires a knowledge of various types of authorship based upon a definite code of rules. The student will

¹ U.S. Library of Congress. *Annual report of the librarian of Congress, 1935* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1935), p.241

find the selection of the correct author entry is often difficult until he has mastered such a code with its suggestions for the possibilities of authorship.

2. Selection of the correct form for author entry.—Authors' names appear on title pages in all sorts of forms. Some names are so brief that identification at first glance is impossible. Others bear family names preceded by so many forenames that to list them all would ensnare the users of the catalog.

Writers who may not be related to one another frequently have the same initials, and the cataloger must discover the forenames of each for the sake of individual identification. Even members of a family bearing the same name must be differentiated in the catalog. Alexander Dumas, *père*, must not be confused with Alexander Dumas, *fils*; and Henry James, Jr. must be distinguished from his father.

Assumed names are often baffling; unless these are detected and the real names are found, books by the same author will inevitably be separated in the catalog. Authors may write some books under their true names and others under assumed names, and in addition may employ varying forms of either. A case in point is James Owen Hannay, who writes under the pseudonym George A. Birmingham. This author uses any of the following forms of name on the title pages of his books:

George A. Birmingham
G. A. Birmingham
James Owen Hannay
James O. Hannay
J. Owen Hannay
J. O. Hannay

It is the cataloger who must simplify these intricacies and bring all the author's works together under one form of name. *One* form must be adopted for the catalog and used each time in listing this author's books, even though some title pages print the name in another form.

References from significant forms not used must then be made to the name chosen. The search for information to establish author entries adds an element of reference work for the cataloger which reference assistants may well envy. It is through the results of this critical search in other catalogs and reference books that the cataloger acquires a bibliographer's sense which assures an accurate and dependable catalog.

One need only examine a few hundred books to realize that the preparation of a library catalog constitutes one of the most important and painstaking tasks in the field of library science. This is not only because cataloging is a piece of work requiring the greatest care and intelligence, but also because effective use of the book collection by staff and readers depends to so great an extent on the quality of the catalog. All activities of the library depend in some measure on this tool. Therefore, the cata-

loger must be on the alert to detect and record every item which may be useful in making the catalog a repository of accurate information.

The question as to how far a library can adopt the go-as-you-please plan of cataloging has been disputed ever since librarians began to think about uniformity; but with the cost of cataloging mounting and the number of books and pamphlets multiplying rapidly, the need of conforming to prescribed rules for entry is becoming almost compulsory. In an effort to simplify, some catalogers still make their catalogs brief and follow obsolete rulings, but such procedure may only make trouble for those who come after them. Simplification does not consist in the elimination of essentials; it means a recognition of essentials and their most effective use, not only today, but in years to come. Unwise simplification today may mean entire reorganization ten years hence. Even the small library should plan its development in such a way that its catalog and its records may not only be expanded with the book collection, but may also be adapted to the new cooperative schemes on which future records are likely to be built. This means that every cataloger must be familiar with the principles of cataloging, with the movements now developing toward cooperation and centralization, and with the rules under which these movements are working. Lastly, and most important of all, he must know reference tools.

Persons as authors.—Most books are written by an individual, but frequently two or more persons collaborate, in which case both, or all, must be considered as responsible for the book. Such collaborators are called *joint authors*, and each may be entered in the catalog. The first name mentioned on the title page becomes the main entry; others are treated as added or secondary entries.

Persons who have edited, compiled, or translated the works of another, unless they have materially changed the original text, do not take precedence over the original author. On the other hand, if an editor or a compiler assembles the works of three or more authors making thereby a new combination or a new book and one with its own independent title page, such a compiler or editor is considered responsible for the existence of the work and his name then becomes the main author entry. Thus, Burton Stevenson, who compiled the *Home book of verse*, is entered in the catalog as the author of that work, and Montrose Moses, who edited *Representative American dramas*, is listed as its author.

Engravers, illustrators, designers, cartographers, architects, commentators, and composers are treated as the authors for books of engravings, pictures, designs, maps, plans, commentaries, and musical scores.

Establishing the form of the author's name.—After the cataloger has determined the author, the next step is to establish the form and fulness of the name to be used as the filing medium in the catalog. Here again

both rules and reference books must come to the aid of the cataloger unless Library of Congress cards are available. The author's usage and the custom of his country are frequently influencing factors. Greek and Roman authors are entered under the Latin form of their names. Medieval names commonly require an epithet following the personal name. Modern names are entered under the surname. If the surname has a prefix, the form of name adopted for the catalog entry will depend on whether the prefix is an article or a preposition. Entry is made under the article in compound names but not under the preposition unless the name containing the preposition has been naturalized in a new country.

Changed names, pseudonyms.—Persons who have changed their names must be entered in a uniform way. Married women are usually entered under their married name with a reference from their maiden name. If they have written under their maiden name as well and are decidedly better known by it, the maiden name may be preferred for the entry.

Authors who write under a pseudonym are cataloged under their real name if that can be discovered. Exception is made in the case of a few writers, such as George Eliot, who are decidedly better known under their pseudonyms.

This means that students, before attempting to catalog, must become familiar with biographical dictionaries, dictionaries of pseudonyms, and other reference works.

Sovereigns, noblemen.—Kings and rulers are usually known by a forename and must be so entered in the catalog. Noblemen are usually entered under their latest title with a reference from their family name.

Vernacular form of the name.—The vernacular form is preferred by libraries following *Catalog rules*. Public and school libraries generally prefer to use the English form of names especially for kings and rulers. These libraries also prefer to enter classical authors according to the English form of their name.

References from names not chosen to the form adopted.—The cataloger's obligation does not end with the choice of the name. In making his decision to accept a certain form, he has provided for the reader who agrees with his choice; but there will be hundreds of users of the catalog and many members of the staff who will look for a different form of name. To meet this situation, cross references must be provided. These guide the reader who knows the author by a name different from the one in the catalog or who may have been culling citations from other catalogs and bibliographical guides. To provide for these readers, the cataloger, not being familiar with all the vagaries of authors, must know how the standard reference books and catalogs treat each entry.

An examination of several authorities will reveal that it would be diffi-

cult to pass from one bibliographical tool to another if these name references were not provided. We find the name of Thomas à Kempis entered under "Kempis (Thomas Hemerken *ou* Malleolus, *dit a*)" in the catalog of the Bibliothèque Nationale; under "Haemmerlein (Thomas) *a Kempis*" in the British Museum catalog; and under "Thomas à Kempis" on Library of Congress cards. Another name, that of John Lubbock, is entered under "Avebury, John Lubbock, *1st baron*" on Library of Congress cards and under "Lubbock (*Right Hon. Sir John*) *Bart.*" in the catalog of the British Museum as well as in the *Dictionary of national biography*. The popular author O. Henry is entered under his real name "Porter, William Sydney" in the *A.L.A. catalog* and under Henry, O. in the Pittsburgh catalog, but neither catalog has a reference from O. Henry, which is probably the form of the name most frequently sought in our library catalogs.

These variations prove that the reader who has been looking up John Lubbock's works, for example, in the British Museum catalog must find a reference card telling him that the same author's works in the local library are entered in the catalog under "Avebury." Unless these references are made, the catalog loses in effectiveness.

✓ 3. **Corporate bodies as authors.**—Corporate bodies are usually governed by a board of directors or a board of trustees. Such a board has its officers, each of whom is merely a representative of the institution or body and is acting for that institution or body, so the name of the society or institution and not the name of an individual becomes the author entry. For example: the American Historical Society is the author of its *Reports*; Toronto University is the author of a series of *Studies*; the Russell Sage Foundation is the author of a *Bi-monthly bulletin*; the Boston Children's Aid Society is author of its *Annual report*; and the U.S. Department of Agriculture is author of its *Yearbook*.

The title page sometimes bears the correct name of these bodies, but usually the name must be verified. Changes often occur in the name from year to year, causing many complications for readers who may wish to trace the consecutive publications of these bodies over a period of time. For example, the title page of the annual report of an institution for 1900 may contain one name, and the title page for 1906 quite a different one. The cataloger must discover when the name was changed and give this information to the reader who may know only one of the names.

Corporate entries include (a) societies and associations of all kinds, such as scientific, benevolent and moral, even when strictly local or named for a county, state, or country; also clubs, guilds, orders of knighthood, secret societies, intercollegiate societies, Greek letter fraternities, political parties, and religious sects; (b) institutions (establishments), such as schools, colleges, universities, libraries, museums, galleries, observatories,

laboratories, churches, monasteries, convents, hospitals, asylums, prisons, theaters, chambers of commerce, botanical gardens, and buildings; (c) government agencies for countries, states, provinces, municipalities, and ecclesiastical, military, or judicial districts; and (d) miscellaneous bodies or organizations, such as conferences, congresses, exhibitions, firms and other business concerns, committees and classes of citizens not belonging to any body or organization, ecclesiastical councils, foundations and endowments, expeditions, and ships.

Societies and institutions.—A society is entered under the first word (not an article) of its corporate name with a reference from any other name by which it is known and, when desirable, from the name of the place where its headquarters are established. An institution is entered under the name of the place where it is located, followed by its corporate name; a reference is made from the corporate name standing by itself when necessary.

The question will immediately arise: How can the cataloger know what the corporate name is? The answer is not easy unless the charter or by-laws of the society or institution happen to be printed in the publication being cataloged; this is one of the first things the cataloger should look for. If the name is not found, reference books and other catalogs, such as the *Union list of serials*, should be consulted. Not only should the cataloger verify the present name but he should also locate the different names under which the society has been known; this is necessary to make the required references.

There are many exceptions to this general statement concerning the names of societies and institutions, and these require careful study. The whole subject has been covered in such an excellent way by Harriet Wheeler Pierson in her *Guide to the cataloguing of the serial publications of societies and institutions* that further discussion here is unnecessary.²

Government documents.—The rules for establishing the corporate names of government agencies as given in the *A.L.A. Catalog rules* have been amplified by James B. Childs in his *Author entry for government publications*. The introduction to this pamphlet discusses some of the problems involved in cataloging documents, and the concluding pages give the rules for establishing place names since these are a component part of the corporate names of institutions.

Before one catalogs publications issued as government documents, he should study the administrative organization of the offices from which they come in order to be sure of the correct name of the departments,

² U.S. Library of Congress. Catalog Division. *Guide to the cataloguing of the serial publications of societies and institutions*, comp. and ed. by Harriet Wheeler Pierson (2d ed.; Washington: Govt. print. off., 1958).

bureaus, or divisions and to place these in their proper relation to superior offices. The cataloger may also have to trace the continuity of these publications for the reader. For example, the catalog should show that the reports of the Panama Canal were submitted from 1899-1902 by a certain Isthmian Canal Commission; that this commission was discontinued and that a new one took up the work, serving from 1904-05; that still another served from 1905-14. When the Commission was discontinued because of a change in administration, the Governor of the Panama Canal Zone became the author of these reports.

Many government documents are very similar to other books. They happen to be published, not by an individual publisher, but by countries, states, cities, or towns. Some are issued in various editions and made up into somewhat involved series, but when these details have been ferreted out, many of them can be cataloged according to the rules for the average book or series.

The first thing for the student to remember is that an official publication of a government is entered under the name of the place. The United States, for example, is the author of its official publications; its name corresponds to the family name in personal entries. Subdivisions are used after the place name; these are the departments, bureaus, and important divisions from which the documents emanate, e.g., U.S. Department of Agriculture.

If the publication issued by a department or bureau is not in the nature of an official report, but has been prepared by some expert either within or outside of the government service, he is considered the author. The phrase often printed under the author's name on the title page gives a clue to the official author. If, for example, the author is designated as a professor at the State College, Ames, Iowa, he is probably not a member of a government department but has been asked to write the book because he is an authority on the subject; in this case the person, not the government agency, is considered the author.

Title pages of documents are often either too meager or too full, and the cataloger must learn where to look for certain facts which will assist in locating the correct and true author. The letter of transmittal which accompanies many documents is one of the best clues. If there are several of these, the author of the document is sure to be the name of the lowest office. The lowest office transmits to its superior, and the next to the one higher up, and so on, but the first office transmitting is responsible for the publication.

Catalog cards for most federal and state documents may be purchased from the Library of Congress, as may cards for many foreign documents. On the other hand, the Library of Congress prints relatively few cards for municipal documents.

The following entries taken from Library of Congress cards will serve to illustrate some forms of document headings:

- U.S. Bureau of the census.
- U.S. Children's bureau.
- U.S. Coast and geodetic survey.
- U.S. Congress.
- U.S. Congress. House. Committee on appropriations.
- U.S. Joint commission on postal salaries.
- U.S. Senate. Committee on agriculture and forestry.
- U.S. 66th Cong., 3rd sess., 1920-1921.
- U.S. Constitution.
- U.S. Copyright office.
- U.S. Dept. of agriculture.
- U.S. Dept. of the interior.
- U.S. Library of Congress.
- U.S. Library of Congress. Division of bibliography.
- U.S. Navy dept.
- U.S. Public health and marine hospital service.
- U.S. Superintendent of documents.

Miscellaneous bodies or organizations.—Conferences, congresses, exhibitions, firms, and similar organizations are authors of their publications. Some of them may have only a temporary organization. Pierson's *Guide to the cataloguing of the serial publications of societies and institutions* covers the rules for establishing such names in somewhat more detail than does the *A.L.A. Catalog rules*.

✓ 4. Other forms of author entry—

Anonymous works.—Books are said to be published anonymously when the name of the author does not appear in the book itself. Sometimes, instead of appearing on the title page, it may be found in the signature to the preface or the dedication, or it may be concealed in some other part of the book. If the authorship cannot be established from the book itself, reference books and other library catalogs must then be searched in the hope that some bibliographer or cataloger has found the real name.

The reasons for spending a certain amount of time in locating the author's name are (1) to list a book with others by the same writer which were perhaps not issued anonymously, and (2) to be able to make an entry or references according to the listing in the catalogs or bibliographies checked.

If authors of anonymous books are found, their names become the main entry, but in addition a title entry should always be made. If no author can be discovered, the first word of the title not an article becomes the main entry.

Anonymous classics.—The Bible and similar sacred books are entered under the name by which they are commonly known, as *Bible*, *Koran*,

and *Vedas*. Parts of these works are likewise entered under standard titles, but have the name of the part added, as *Bible. O. T. Genesis* or *Vedas. Rigveda*. Epics, romances, national folk tales, and other anonymous classics are similarly entered under their traditional names, as *Arabian nights*, *Chanson de Roland*, *Nibelungenlied*, and *Reynard the fox*.

Periodicals, yearbooks, encyclopedias.—Publications not identified with definite authors are entered under their titles as the main entry. Such publications include, besides the three mentioned already, almanacs, directories, and newspapers. The cataloging of periodicals is fully covered by Mary Wilson MacNair in her *Guide to the cataloguing of periodicals*.³

5. The authority file.—Catalog departments may maintain an official authority file on cards in order to insure accuracy and uniformity in the use of names, to record variant forms of authors' names, and also to trace the necessary references. This file is a list of all personal and corporate names appearing in the catalog as author, subject, or added entry. The authority card lists the title of the book being cataloged, the variant names found, the cross references made, and the bibliographical sources checked in the course of the search. Such a record is a means of preserving useful information. It need not be made, however, if the sole authority was a Library of Congress card.⁴ The authority cards are sometimes filed separately and sometimes in the official catalog.

The Library of Congress has defined an authority card as:

One card on which is recorded the complete name, years of birth and death and other necessary data with regard to persons and corporate entries used in libraries in headings of catalog cards. This card serves to secure uniformity in headings and obviates repeated researches in connection with successive works by or about the same person. This card is most suggestive in making cross references from one form of the author's name to another and from the pseudonyms he may have used.⁵

Some of the authority cards for corporate entries have been printed by the Library of Congress and may be used in public and official catalogs as information cards. The authority card for a corporate name often gives a brief history of the body, and as a result it is sometimes referred to as a history card. Miss Pierson describes the Library of Congress practice

³ U.S. Library of Congress. Catalog Division. *Guide to the cataloguing of periodicals*. 3d ed. Prepared by Mary Wilson MacNair (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1938), 23p.

⁴ See S. G. Akers, *Simple library cataloging* (2d ed.; Chicago: A.L.A., 1935), p.22-23. Many libraries, large and small, do not use authority cards. Information considered worth preserving is then recorded on the back of the main card or on information cards. The tracing for cross references is recorded similarly, and of course not very conveniently. On the other hand, these libraries save much money, since authority cards are expensive to compile and make, especially for corporate entries.

⁵ U.S. Library of Congress. *Annual report of the librarian of Congress, 1938* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1939), p.297-98.

regarding the establishing of corporate names when she says: "An authority card is to be made for each heading established, to contain, whenever obtainable, the date of founding, date of incorporation, changes of name, and affiliation or union with other societies."⁶

Catalogers need to know thoroughly the reference books in their libraries so that personal and corporate names may be readily established. Smaller libraries find the publications of the H. W. Wilson Company very useful in determining the correct form of entry to use.

Place names.—The correct form for geographical names, both as author and as subject headings, has to be established likewise. Mudge's *Guide to reference books* lists the various authorities that may be consulted for place names. Childs⁷ lists the authorities most frequently consulted, but to his list should be added the index volume to the *Encyclopedia britannica* and also the *United States Postal guide*.⁸

III. Title Added Entries

It is often necessary to have title entries for books even though the books have already been entered under their authors' names. Titles beginning with a common term, such as "history," "elements," "complete," etc., should seldom find a place in the catalog because they would not be very helpful and because they might be quite numerous.

One difficulty the cataloger has to keep in mind is that readers sometimes mistake a title entry for a subject heading. A reader may think he has exhausted the resources of the library after he has discovered one title card relating to his subject of inquiry. For example, the title *Browning critics*, if inserted in the card catalog, might attract the reader's attention to the exclusion of the critical works to be found under *Browning, Robert*. A title entry *Concrete roads and pavements* might be taken as the only book in the library on the subject of pavements when there may be ten other books under the subject heading *Pavements*. Where title entries conflict with subject headings in this way, a reference card is probably desirable, as, *Concrete roads and pavements*. See *Pavements*.

Title added entries are usually made for:

1. Works of fiction, as, *The street called straight*, by Basil King
2. Short stories, as, *How the camel got his hump*, by Kipling
3. Dramas, as, *Fanny's first play*, by Shaw
4. Poems having distinctive titles, as, "The wine-press," by Alfred Noyes

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p.3.

⁷ J. B. Childs, *Author entry for government publications* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1941), p.32-35.

⁸ The rules for establishing place names are also treated by J. C. M. Hanson in his *A comparative study of cataloging rules based on the Anglo-American code of 1908* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago pr. [1939]), p.124-30.

5. Striking titles not covered by 1-4, as, *Thunder and dawn*, by Glenn Frank
6. Alternative titles if they are striking, as, *War; or, What happens when one loves one's enemies*, by John Luther Long; in this case a card under "What happens when one loves one's enemies" might prove useful
7. Striking titles not included as the first words of the title, as *The personal history of David Copperfield*, in which case the title entry should be made under "David Copperfield" and not under the full title
8. Titles when the subject heading is not as definite or specific as the title, e.g., Greek vases, when the subject heading is *Vases*; a reference may be used in such a case if preferred
9. Works cataloged under corporate names (except when the title is a common one, such as "Annual report" or "Bulletin") as *Factories and warehouses of concrete*, issued by the Association of American Portland Cement Manufacturers
10. Anonymous titles whose authorship has been determined

IV. Summary

The author catalog is the basic catalog and the author card is the key card. It is from this card that all secondary cards (that is, all entries other than the main entry) are traced.

Research is necessary in establishing consistent entries.

Decisions about the form of the author entry are based on a definite code of rules.

The reader and the library staff will go to the author-and-title catalog when they want the following:

1. An author-and-title index to the shelves
2. An author-and-title index to the shelf list
3. The author of a book when only the title is known
4. The literary output of an author as represented in the library collection
5. The complete edition of an author's works
6. The selected works of an author
7. Individual works by an author
8. Translations of individual works; these are cataloged under the author of the original work with an added entry for the translator
9. All editions of an author's works or one specific edition
10. The pseudonym of an author when the real name is known
11. The real name of an author when the pseudonym is known
12. Information provided by references, showing preferred and related headings
13. Names of books belonging to a series

The author-and-title catalog is an essential tool for libraries of every size and type. It is an integral part of the dictionary catalog, but it answers only part of the questions which come to the average library. In the next chapter a study will be made of the subject and form entries which, together with the author entries, make up the dictionary catalog.

V. Examples of Name Entries as Used by Library of Congress

1. Nobility

Croatian—

Zrinski, Petar, *grof*, 1621-1671.

Dutch—

De Geer, Gerard Jakob, *friherre*, 1858-
 Ittersum, Lodewijk Arent van, *baron*, 1896-
 Lennep, Frank Karel van, *jonkheer*, 1865-
 Ripperda, Jan Willem van, *duque*, d. 1737.

English—

Avebury, John Lubbock, *1st baron*, 1834-1913.
 Kysant, Owen Cosby Philipps, *baron*, 1863-
 De Sausmarez, Sir Havilland Walter, *bart.*, 1861-
 Noble, Sir George, *2d bart.*, 1859-
 Rutland, Charles Manners, *4th duke of*, 1754-1787.
 Bristol, George Digby, *2d earl of*, 1612-1677.
 Walpole, Horace, *earl of Orford*, 1717-1797.
 Baring, *Hon.* Maurice, 1874-
 Lauder, Sir Harry, 1870-
 Cecil, Lord Hugh Richard Heathcote, 1869-
 Bankton, Andrew Macdowall, *lord*, 1685-1760.
 Bacon, Francis, *viscount St. Albans*, 1561-1626.
 Montagu, Lady Nary (*Pierrepoint*) Wortley, 1689-1762.
 Duff-Gordon, Lusie (Austin) *lady*, 1821-1869.

French—

La Bigotière, René de, *seigneur de Perchambault*, 1640(ca.)-1727.
 Guise, Henri II de Lorraine, *5. duc de*, 1614-1664.
 Lenoble, Eustache, *baron de Saint-George et de Tennelière*, 1643-1711.
 La Barre, César Alexis Chichereau, *chevalier de*, b. ca. 1630.
 Brissac, Charles de Cossé, *comte de*, 1550-1621.
 Lorge, Guy Aldonce de Durfort, *duc de*, 1630?-1702.
 Carel, Jacques, *sieur de Sainte-Garde*, 1620(ca)-1684.

German—

Dohna-Schlodien, Alexander, *burggraf und graf zu*, 1876-
 Kaltenborn und Stachau, Carl, *freiherr von*, 1817-1866.
 Löwenstein, Friedrich, *prinz zu*, 1860-
 Niesiotowski-Gawin, Viktor, *ritter von*, 1868-

Italian—

Borghese, Giovanni Battista, *principe*, 1855-
 Starrabba, Raffaele, *barone*, 1834-1906.

Spanish—

Olivares, Gaspar de Guzmán, *conde-duque de*, 1587-1645.
 Alcalá-Galiano, Alvaro, *marqués de Castel-Bravo*, 1886-
 Güell, Eusebio Güell y López, *2. vizconde de*, 1877-
 Revilla Gigedo, Juan Vicente Güémez Pacheco de Padilla Horcasitas y
 Aguayo, *conde de*, 1740-1799.

Swedish—

Berzelius, Jöns Jakob, *friherre*, 1779-1848.
 Königsmarck, Karl Johan von, *grefve*, 1659-1686.

Turkish—

Ibrahim-Hilmy, *prince*, 1860-

2. Married Woman

Stowe, Harriet Elizabeth (Beecher), 1811-1896.

3. President

Washington, George, *pres. U.S.*, 1732-1799.

4. Societies and Institutions**Abbeys, monasteries, convents—**

Tintern abbey

Caleruega, Spain. Santo Domingo (*Dominican convent*)

Cologne. Sankt Barbara (*Carthusian monastery*)

Durbon, la chartreuse de (*Monastery*)

Churches—

Cumberland Presbyterian church, Cumberland Co., Va.

Jerusalem. Church of the Holy Sepulcher.

New York. Trinity church.

Pittsburgh. Central Presbyterian church.

Ueberlingen, Ger. St. Nikolaus (*Minster*)

Congresses and conferences—

Congreso de estudios vascos. *5th, Vergara*, 1930.

International congress of Orientalists. *18th, Leyden*, 1931.

National conference on planning, *Boston*, 1939.

State-wide tax conference, *University of Colorado*, 1934.

Exhibitions and expositions—

Chicago. Century of progress international exposition, 1933.

Paris. Salon, 1930 (*Société des artistes décorateurs*)

Paris. Salon international d'art photographique. *25th*, 1930.

Expeditions—

Canadian Arctic expedition, *1913-1918*.

Joint expedition of the British museum and of the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania to Mesopotamia.

International polar expedition.

Firms—

Appleton (D)-Century company, inc., *New York*.

Atherton, Edwin N., & associates.

Burnet, Sir John, & partners, *firm, architects*.

Shepard, The Frank, company.

Simrock, *firm, music pub., Berlin*.

Institutions—

Chase national bank of the city of New York.

Grenoble. Bibliothèque municipale.

Pulkovo. Astronomicheskaiâ observatoriâ.

Schools—

Bedales school, Steep, Eng.

Brooklyn. Public school 48.

New York. Paul Hoffman junior high school.

Paris. Lycée Janson-de-Sailly.

Societies—

Academia das ciencias de Lisboa.

American physical society.

Société des compositeurs de musique, *Paris*.

American library association.

American mathematical society, *New York*.

References

Catalogers must always be on the alert to make notes of the books already in the library which may serve as catalogers' tools. Many of the biographical dictionaries in the reference collection will be useful. A card list of these kept at the cataloger's desk under special topics, as Spanish names, societies, corporate names etc., will be useful.

The cataloger will need to consult Mudge's *Guide to reference books* constantly for aids in establishing names, verifying dates, etc.

GOULDING, P. S. "The value of research in cataloging," *Catalogers' and Classifiers Yearbook*, II (1930), 47-52.

How far to go in the search for authors' names and other items to be supplied on the catalog card.

MACPHERSON, H. D. Some practical problems in cataloging. Chicago: A. L. A., 1936. "Difficult names and their entries," p. 55-73.

MANN, MARGARET, and CRAWFORD, L. C. "Aids for the cataloger from the Library of Congress," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, VI (1937), 36-46.

PETTEE, JULIA. "The development of authorship entry and the formulation of authorship rules as found in the Anglo American code," *Library Quarterly* VI (July 1936), 270-90.

SHARP, H. A. *Cataloguing, a textbook for use in libraries*. 2d ed. rev. and enl. London: Grafton, 1937.

"Rules for the main entry," p. 86-132.

WRIGHT, W. E. "Some fundamental principles in cataloging," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, VII (1938), 26-39.

Personal Author Entry

GARDNER, F. M. "Letters from an English cousin," *Wilson Bulletin*, XI (October 1936), 127-28, 130.

"On the correct use of English titles in cataloging practice."

GOSNELL, C. F. *Spanish personal names, principles governing their formation and use*. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1938. 112p.

Principles involved in the modern usage of Spanish names, with a bibliography of sources and an appendix dealing with Portuguese names.

JERNIGAN, E. T. "Authority files and official catalogs," *Library Journal*, LXIV (January 1939), 23-25.

MORRIS, A. V. *Anonyms and pseudonyms, an annotated list*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago pr., [1934].

Reprinted from the *Library Quarterly*, III (October 1933), 354-72.

OTERO, J. V. "Proper citations of Spanish names," *Wilson Bulletin*, IX (January 1935), 255-56.

RANGANATHAN, S. R. *Theory of library catalogue*. London: Goldston, 1938.

"Name entries," p. 275-339. Good for examples of entries, personal and corporate.

SHARP, H. A. *Cataloguing, a textbook for use in libraries*. 2d ed. rev. and enl. London: Grafton, 1937.

"Titles of nobility," p. 371-74.

Corporate Entry—General

- BLISS, H. E. "Some reflections on corporate names," *Library Quarterly*, VI (July 1936), 263-69.
- CHARLTON, ALICE. "A comparison of entry for serials in the United States and some European countries," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, II (1930), 33-46.
- Goss, E. L. "The cataloging of serials," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, II (1930), 73-92.
- HANSON, J. C. M. "Corporate authorship versus title entry," *Library Quarterly*, V (October 1935), 457-66.
- KUHLMAN, A. F. "Administration of serial and document acquisition and preparation." In W. M. Randall, ed. *The acquisition and cataloging of books* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago pr., [1940]), p.95-116.

Corporate Entry—Government Documents

- CHILDS, J. B. An account of government document bibliography in the United States and elsewhere. Rev. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1930. 57p.
- Author entry for government publications. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1941. 38p.
- Bibliography of official publications and the administrative systems in Latin American countries. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1938. Reprinted by the H. W. Wilson co., N.Y., 1938. 44p.
- COWELL, F. R. Brief guide to government publications. London: H. M. Stationery off., [1938]. 43p.
- Limited to British documents.
- HIGGINS, M. V. Canadian government publications, a manual for librarians. Chicago: A.L.A., 1935. 582p.
- Covers federal documents only, with a brief history of each department and a list of its publications. A useful guide for catalogers.
- KER, A. M. Mexican government publications. A guide to the more important publications of the national governments of Mexico, 1821-1936. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1940. 333p.
- MURRAY, F. B. "Canadian government document catalogs and check-lists," *Library Quarterly*, VI (July 1936), 237-62.
- WILCOX, J. K., comp. Guide to the official publications of the New Deal administration. Chicago: A.L.A., 1934. 113p.
- 1st supplement. Apr. 15, 1934-Dec. 1, 1935. Chicago: A.L.A., [1936]. 184p.
- 2d supplement. Dec. 1, 1935-Jan. 1, 1937. Chicago: A.L.A., 1937. 190p.
- Manual on the use of state publications. Chicago: A.L.A., 1940. 342p.

Corporate Entry—Societies and Institutions

- PETTEE, JULIA. "Author headings for church bodies," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, VI (1937), 91-94.
- PIERSON, H. W. The gay science, the cataloguing of the publications of learned societies. N.Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1927. 8p.

- "The forest of pencils, adventures in corporate entry," *Library Quarterly*, IV (April 1934), 306-13
- U.S. Library of Congress Catalog Division. Guide to the cataloguing of the serial publications of societies and institutions, comp and ed by Harnet Wheeler Pierson 2d ed Washington Govt print off, 1938 128p

Title Entry

- CLARK, P. H. The problem presented by periodicals in college and university libraries Chicago. Univ of Chicago pr, 1930 39p
- DICKINSON, S. S. "Idiosyncracies of periodicals," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, II (1930), 93-98.
- Discusses problems such as change of name, mergers, etc.
- MACPHERSON, H. D. "The anonymous classic and some problems of its cataloging," *Library Quarterly*, IV (April 1934), 274-81.
- SMITH, A. C. "The cataloging of medieval romances," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, VI (1937), 95-110.
- U.S. Library of Congress Catalog Division. Guide to the cataloguing of periodicals. 3d ed Prepared by Mary Wilson MacNair Washington Govt print off., 1938. 23p.

Some Practical Questions

1. Identify the following authors' names and indicate what references you would make. Look these up in any library catalog or biographical reference books at your command.
 - Fourth Earl of Chesterfield
 - Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu
 - Madame Mary F. Robinson, 1857-
 - Pierre de Coulevain
 - Claude Ferval
 - Alice S Green, who wrote *Town life in the 15th century*
 - Baron Czoernig, who wrote *Ethnographic chart of the Austrian monarchy*
2. Look up the A.L.A. rule for the main entry for cataloging the following, and rewrite each entry on a card in correct catalog form, indicating the number of the rule chosen.
 - a) *Foundry practice*, by James Murray Tate and M. O. Stone
 - b) *Donatello*, by David A. E. Lindsay (Lord Balcarres)
 - c) Annual report of the Detroit Public Library
 - d) *Harper's school speaker*, compiled by James Baldwin
 - e) *Poems, plays and Rosamund Grey*, by Charles Lamb; edited by William Macdonald
 - f) *Ariadne in Mantua, a romance in five acts*, by Vernon Lee (pseudonym of Violet Paget)
3. Examine the *Readers' guide to periodical literature* and state its use in compiling an author catalog
4. Write a descriptive annotation for Halkett and Laing's *Dictionary of anonymous*

mous and pseudonymous English literature; new and enlarged edition, by James Kennedy and others (London, 1926-34).

5. Designate what main and added entries (exclusive of subject entries) you would make for the following:

- a) *The last cruise of the Shanghai; being the story of the teakwood boat over the Viking trail*, by Frederic De Witt Wells, illustrations by Philip Kappel, 1925
- b) *Posters & their designers*, by S. R. Jones; ed. by Geoffrey Holme, 1924
- c) *The enchanted wanderer*, by N. S. Liĕskov, tr. from the Russian by A. G. Paschkoff; ed. with an introduction by Maxim Gorky, 1924 (fiction)
- d) *A history of sculpture*, by G. H. Chase and C. R. Post, 1925
- e) *The house on Smith square*, by the author of *The house on Charles street* (fiction)
- f) *Some masters of Spanish verse*, by James Fitzmaurice-Kelly, 1924
- g) *Terra cotta of the Italian renaissance*; plates issued by the National Terra Cotta Society, 1925
- h) *Yiddish folk songs*, compiled by S. P. Schack, piano arrangement by E. S. Cohen, 1924
- i) *The Decroly class; a contribution to elementary education*, by Amélie Hamaïde, collaborator with Dr. Decroly; with a preface by E. Claparède, tr. from the French by J. L. Hunt, 1924

IX

Subject and Form Entries for a Dictionary Catalog

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|--|---|
| I. Some Observations on the Principles and Practice of Subject Heading | II. Subject Headings |
| 1. Use of standard lists of headings | 1. Choice of terms as headings |
| 2. Correlation of classification and subject heading | 2. Persons as subjects: biography and criticism |
| 3. Use of reference books to understand subjects | 3. Subdivision of headings |
| 4. Use of the shelf list in subject heading | 4. Current or new headings |
| 5. Generous but intelligent use of references | III. Headings for Form Books |
| 6. Regional division of subject headings | 1. For books having a definite use |
| 7. Syndetic catalog | 2. For literature |
| 8. Consideration of books in groups | 3. For languages |
| 9. Two types of headings: subject and form | IV. Subject Cross References |
| 10. Some definitions | 1. References from general to specific terms |
| | 2. <i>See also</i> references |
| | V. Number of Headings for a Book |
| | VI. Subject Analyticals |

Before beginning a theoretical study of subject headings the student will find it helpful to examine the subject entries in a library catalog. In making such an approach he will find himself in a position comparable to that of the cataloger who must discover the principles and practices that have been followed in building up the catalog to which he is now contributing. Catalogers are rarely called upon to create a dictionary catalog; they are commonly asked to contribute to one that is already functioning.

Various factors need to be considered in order to obtain a clear understanding of the purpose of subject entries. Among these may be reckoned: the number of books needing subject headings, the nature of the books, the organization of the library with open or closed access to book shelves, the kind of reader who will use the catalog, and, as far as the arrangement of the subject entries is concerned, their relation to the other parts of the dictionary catalog.

The size of a library has an important bearing on the subject entries

as well as on the upkeep of a catalog. When a library reaches the fifty or sixty thousand volume mark, the subject headings begin to need subdivision and a general revision of the catalog may become necessary. From then on, new and more complex headings will be introduced every year as the collection continues to grow.

The organization and use of a library affect the subject entries still more. If there is open access, the classification provides much of the subject approach to books, but with closed shelves the subject entries become doubly important, while at the same time they are generally more numerous. Where a small and select group of readers is concerned, as in a special or a school library, it should not be difficult to determine their subject heading needs; but where there is a big and varied reading public, as in a large reference library, it is difficult to fit the subject entries to the capacities and needs of all readers.

I. Some Observations on the Principles and Practice of Subject Heading

By subject entry we mean the term or terms used in a dictionary catalog to express the subject or subjects of books. It is part of the cataloger's task to discover the topics with which books deal and then to select terms which express those topics briefly and exactly.

1. Use of standard lists of headings.—Cutter gave good advice when he said:

The importance of deciding aright where any given subject shall be entered is in inverse proportion to the difficulty of decision. If there is no obvious principle to guide the cataloger, it is plain there will be no reason why the public should expect to find the entry under one heading rather than another, and therefore in regard to the public it matters not which is chosen. But it is better that such decisions should be made to conform when possible to some general system, as there is then more likelihood that they will be decided alike by different catalogers, and that a usage will grow up which the public will finally learn to profit by.¹

There are two general systems in common use in the United States today. These are the Library of Congress² and the Sears³ lists of subject headings, the one designed for large, and the other for small libraries. We may accordingly say that the first principle of subject heading is to learn and know the policies followed by these two lists. This entails a

¹ C. A. Cutter, *Rules for a dictionary catalog* (4th ed.; Washington: Govt. print. off., 1904), p.66.

² U.S. Library of Congress. Subject Cataloging Division. *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogs of the Library of Congress*, ed. by Mary Wilson MacNair (4th ed.; Washington: Govt. print. off., 1943), 2v.

³ M. E. Sears, *List of subject headings for small libraries*. 4th ed. rev., with additions of decimal classification numbers by Isabel Stevenson Monro (N. Y.: H. W. Wilson, 1939), 516p.

study of subjects, not one heading by itself, but the whole chain of headings as organized from the general to the specific. The student should take a subject heading such as *Numismatics* and by means of *see* and *see also* references trace the related headings such as *Medals* and *Seals* (*Numismatics*). The cataloger is constantly following up such patterns as new books and new subjects have to be fitted into the scheme.

2. Correlation of classification and subject heading.—The two functions of classifying and assigning subject headings should be closely correlated since both are concerned with the subject side of books. Time is saved and greater uniformity is secured if this policy is followed. The classifier expresses the subject of a book by a symbol, as 150; the cataloger, after going through the same process of reasoning, expresses the subject in the word *Psychology*. According to H. A. Sharp:

It is clear . . . that classification and cataloguing are two distinct processes, but that they are, nevertheless, so closely intertwined that the second must be regarded as the direct complement of the first. In saying that the second is the complement of the first we do so designedly, for it is the catalogue that is the complement of the classification and not the classification that is the complement of the catalogue; there is nothing that a shelf classification does but what a catalogue can do equally well, short of facilitating the actual comparative examination of the books themselves. Contrariwise, there is a good deal that the catalogue can, and does do, that no classification can do at all.⁴

Therefore the second principle of subject heading is: Correlate classification and the selection of subject headings.

The *see also* references in a dictionary catalog correspond in some respects to the subdivisions in a classification scheme. Both proceed from the general to the specific. Many of the *see also* references under *Psychology* in a list of subject headings would also be found as subdivisions of 150 in Dewey. Knowledge of such a fact can often be of great assistance in making references when new headings are adopted. The relative index to Dewey is sometimes helpful too.

The dictionary catalog, through its subject headings, furnishes a systematic approach to all phases of a large subject by means of an alphabetical list of terms and through interlocking references. The classification scheme does the same thing, only it, instead of adopting an alphabetical arrangement, holds to a logical order and relies on an alphabetical index to disclose specific entries.

3. Use of reference books to understand subjects.—The third principle has to do with reference tools. The field of knowledge is so great that no one can master all subjects. Hence reference aids must be called upon to help in understanding subjects and in comprehending terms. Diction-

⁴H. A. Sharp, *Cataloguing* (2d ed.; London: Grafton, 1937), p.422-23.

aries and encyclopedias are of first importance in this connection, and with them must be included technical dictionaries, foreign language dictionaries, and handbooks. The danger lies in *thinking* one knows about a subject or a term.

4. **Use of the shelf list in subject heading.**—The fourth principle is that the shelf list can often serve as an aid in subject heading. If a book is classified in 372.3, which Dewey defines as "Sensory training or observing powers," the classification schedule offers no clue as to possible subject headings. By looking in the shelf list under 372.3, however, the cataloger may find appropriate headings suggested by other books classified there.

5. **Generous but intelligent use of references.**—The fifth principle applies to cross references. The cataloger should be generous with references but should use them with intelligence. References weld the dictionary catalog together. They are the guide posts that show which road the reader is on and where he will get to, whatever way he turns. It is through this interlocking of terms that the reader is led from one subject to another. Guides of this kind are helpful and informative; they suggest headings unknown to the searcher and introduce him to new and later books in his general or special field. The references furnish an alphabetical medium for showing logic. They do not bring together in the catalog all phases of a subject but they do show the reader how he can gather his information from various places.

6. **Regional division of subject headings.**—The sixth principle is to learn and know how to treat subjects that are limited by place. Many books have a direct application to some region. *The banking system of Germany*, *Mining in South Africa*, and *Romanesque architecture in France* are works of this kind. Each of these is valuable both because of its subject and because of its application to a certain locality, but the subject value seems greater than the regional. It is logical, therefore, to make the subject entries for such material under the subject, subdividing by region where necessary.

If, however, the subjects treated are those closely relating to a people, state, or place (such as works on history, politics and government, economic conditions, etc.), the place name takes precedence and the **subject** is made secondary to the region. Examples of this practice are:

Chicago—Police
France—History
Germany—Social conditions

Should a reader want to study all the books pertaining to a certain place, he would, in using the dictionary catalog, have to depend on references or else understand this general plan. References should be made

freely so that regional groups may be reasonably complete, at least as a guide. References such as the following would be useful in this connection:

France—Architecture. See Architecture—France
Germany—Banks. See Banks and banking—Germany
South Africa—Mines and mineral resources. See Mines
and mineral resources—Africa, South

The matter is further complicated by the fact that for local material the regional subdivision is sometimes made "directly" by using the local name only in the subdivision and sometimes "indirectly" by using the country name before the local name. The Library of Congress has published a list of *Subject headings with local subdivision* which shows whether direct or indirect subdivision is used. The "Prefatory note" to that list says:

The principle upon which subjects have been classified . . . is admittedly not susceptible of rigid application—opinion may differ, and it may be conceded that in the case of a considerable number of the subjects it has not been applied with unerring judgment and with the greatest possible consistency. The lists are printed in response to numerous requests for information as to the actual practice of the Library of Congress, and are not offered as a guide to be unquestionably followed.⁵

Indirect subdivision is used by the Library of Congress when it regards the predominant interest in a subject as pertaining to the country or state and when the subject is common to all or most of the localities in the area. Among other headings, it includes the following groups of subjects:

1. Agricultural headings, fisheries, mining, minerals, ores, etc., e.g., *Agriculture—England—Devon*
2. Scientific subjects, such as botany, geology, zoölogy, e.g., *Botany—Ohio—Hamilton co.*
3. Educational subjects, e.g., *Education—Germany—Berlin*
4. Classes of persons, such as the blind, deaf, and dumb, e.g., *Blind—Pennsylvania—Philadelphia*
5. Sports, etc., e.g., *Games—France—Paris*
6. Certain legal headings, e.g., *Food law and legislation—U.S.—Boston*
7. Inspection headings, e.g., *Meat inspection—U.S.—Chicago*

Exception is made in the case of colleges and universities, hospitals, libraries, and other institutions whose development is largely or exclusively identified with cities and where the primary subject interest is local. Thus, while *Libraries—U.S.* and *Libraries—Massachusetts* are used, the local heading is *Boston—Libraries*, not *Libraries—Massachusetts—Boston* or *Libraries—Boston*.

Direct subdivision is used for subjects peculiar to, or identified in inter-

⁵ U.S. Library of Congress. Catalog Division. *Subject headings with local subdivision* . . . comp. by Mary Wilson MacNair (5th ed.; Washington: Govt. print. off., 1935), p.iii.

est with, smaller regions or localities. These subjects are social, political, economic, or cultural movements, institutions, industries, classes or groups of persons, etc. Examples of direct subdivision are:

Architecture—Gard, France (Dept.)
Cost and standard of living—Paris
Taxation—Suffolk co., Mass.

It will be observed that states and provinces are classed with countries so that they always take direct subdivision, but the present departments of France and the provinces of Italy are not classed with countries.

7. Syndetic catalog.—It will be noted that, while the dictionary catalog is supposed to take no account of logic, it has been developed in such a way that many principles of logic have been introduced. It is not a simple index with no consideration for the grouping of like subjects, nor is it devoid of references which tend to correlate and unify the entries. Cutter calls it a "syndetic" catalog, which he defines as follows:

Syndetic, connective, applied to that kind of dictionary catalog which binds its entries together by means of cross-references so as to form a whole, the references being made from the most comprehensive subject to those of the next lower degree of comprehensiveness, and from each of these to their subordinate subjects. . . . These cross-references correspond to and are a good substitute for the arrangement in a systematic catalog. References are also made in the syndetic catalog to illustrative and coördinate subjects.⁶

8. Consideration of books in groups.—Since each subject must be linked up with similar topics in the catalog, the cataloger must be sensitive to comparative facts and ideas in books. What he gets out of books must depend not only on what he can detect through the author's facts but also on what he himself has acquired in the way of previous learning and experience, and on the habits of reflection, comparison, and observation which he has formed. If references are needed to correlate subject entries and unify the catalog, the cataloger will need to become familiar with the logical sequences common to many fields of knowledge. The classification scheme will help him in acquiring that familiarity.

9. Two types of headings: subject and form.—When classifying books we found two types, those treating of a definite subject or topic, and those written according to a specific form. These two types require the use of either subject or form headings in the dictionary catalog.

10. Some definitions.—Before going further, the student will find several definitions useful.

The *subject* of a book is the theme or topic treated by an author.

The *subject heading* is the word or phrase used on catalog cards to express the

⁶ C. A. Cutter, *op. cit.*, p.23.

theme or topic of a book. There may be as many subject headings as are necessary to show the scope of a book, but these should not be multiplied indiscriminately.

The *subject entry* is the catalog card with a subject heading at the top as the filing medium. It is usually a unit card with the subject heading added. It is known also as a subject card.

II. Subject Headings

The technique involved in choosing subject headings is a simple matter where few books are to be cataloged. The problem becomes increasingly complex as the collection grows. The fact that the whole vocabulary of the English language is at our command does not make the problem easier. It only emphasizes the importance of careful selection of terms and the necessity of formulating some plan to regulate this selection and insure consistent development.

1. **Choice of terms as headings.**—It must be stated at the outset that no hard and fast decisions leading to the choice of terms can be made which will apply in all cases. Books are not alike and subjects change as the fields of knowledge advance. New political groupings bring different geographical divisions, and inventions make it necessary to coin new words. Fortunately, experience has led catalogers to make certain rulings which furnish helpful guides to the beginner and show the practice of libraries in their attempt to satisfy readers.⁷

Cutter's *Rules for a dictionary catalog* is the only printed code in English covering the rulings for subject headings and, while students should refer to it, their attention should be called to the facts that much of the reasoning used by Cutter was based on that formerly applied to a classified catalog and that many of the illustrations are out of date.

Use terms which represent subjects.—In choosing a term to express the theme or topic of a book the cataloger must be mindful of two things: the word or phrase must fit the individual book and, in addition, the word or phrase must be one which will not be limited to one book but will apply to a group of books.

The cataloger must not be unduly influenced by the phraseology of the book in hand when he is choosing a term to express the subject of the book. For example, if a book entitled *Keramic art* is to be cataloged, the subject heading *Keramics* might be chosen. Then a book entitled *Pottery and porcelain* comes over the cataloger's desk. Is this to be entered under *Pottery* or should it go with the former book that had "Keramic" on its title page? If *Keramics* is used, should it be spelled with a *K* or a *C*? All three terms (*Ceramics*, *Keramics*, and *Pottery*) are applicable and three

⁷ In connection with this chapter, the student should read "Practical suggestions for the beginner in subject heading work" which is the introduction to Sears' *List of subject headings for small libraries*. It can be secured as a separate.

different readers might easily approach a catalog with any one of them in mind. Naturally the cataloger should not scatter the entries in three different places in the alphabet. He must choose the term that is most common, simple, and specific, the one most frequently used in other indexes, and the one which is broad enough to include the various phases of the topic. In the case in point, *Pottery* would be the preferable term. Under this heading the cataloger will then enter all books dealing with this subject, regardless of the wording of the title pages. He must make references to *Pottery* for the readers who might look under *Ceramics*, *Keramics*, or *Porcelain*. These references, each on a separate card, would read:

Ceramics. See Pottery

Keramics. See Pottery

Porcelain. See Pottery

Use the most specific term.—As a general rule, books must be entered under the most specific subject heading available. This means the heading which will most accurately fit the book. The term must express the content of the book sharply and accurately, not vaguely and loosely. For example, a book about wheat should be entered under *Wheat* and not under the general heading *Grain* along with other specific grains.

Use common rather than technical terms.—Because habit is an important factor in quick reference, it is desirable that the name of a subject should be the one in common usage, that is, the form generally used in common parlance, in printed indexes, encyclopedias, and other reference guides. Probably ninety per cent of the users of a dictionary catalog who want to look up the subject of bones would go to that word. *Osteology* is not a term in common usage and would be looked for only by the specialist. To provide for the few persons who would look under the scientific term rather than the common one, a reference is made which in this case would read: *Osteology. See Bones*.

Use plural rather than singular terms.—The plural form is usually adopted for subject headings. It is inclusive. For example, *Canal* might mean one canal, as the Panama Canal, but as soon as the plural form *Canals* is used all phases of the subject (including commercial, engineering, and transportation aspects) may be entered under this heading. Singular and plural may both be necessary if the two forms of the word have a different meaning, as is the case with *Theater* and *Theaters*.

Use terms which express the correct point of view.—Books must not be listed under headings which do not express their correct point of view. One might think, for example, that all books treating of psychology could be grouped under this term. They may be, in the very small library, but in the larger library it will be necessary to consider the subject in its many applications. For example, psychology when applied to medicine takes on

a new name; it is known as pathological psychology, and the reader is quite justified in expecting to find this term in the catalog.

Use inverted headings only when necessary.—A problem arises if a term such as pathological psychology is used. The general heading *Psychology* will lose all the books which deal with this subject in its application to medicine, because the two groups will not be filed together. In such a case, the term may be changed to bring the new subject into relation with the main subject heading to which it belongs; in other words, a term must be found which will allow the special application of the topic to be grouped with the main subject. Such headings are called "inverted headings." They are adopted when it seems desirable to keep classes together to maintain a somewhat logical arrangement. In this instance, *Psychology, Pathological* can be used. A reference is then made from *Pathological psychology* for the reader who might look under that term.

Several good reasons for grouping the various aspects of a subject in the dictionary catalog warrant the use of inverted headings. Such an arrangement (1) brings books on related aspects of a subject together; (2) it results in a grouping that is frequently different from the classified arrangement on the shelves; and (3) it relieves readers of the trouble of searching in a number of places in the catalog to find related topics. Such a plan to show different phases of treatment is dependent on the size of the collection. A small library that has two or three books on the subject could enter these under the heading *Psychology* and make a *see* reference from more specific headings. The general term would then include books on psychology and its applications. Each item in the small group under *Psychology* could be quickly scanned and the titles would differentiate the books for the reader.

Inverted phrase-headings (such as *Furniture, History of*) should usually be avoided. The qualifying word should be used as a subheading instead, e.g., *Furniture—History*.

Use combined terms for two subjects commonly treated together.—Compound headings are used for two aspects of a subject that are so closely allied that the one is rarely discussed without the other, e.g.,

Clocks and watches
Dyes and dyeing
Manners and customs

A reference should generally be made from the second part of the compound heading, as for example *Watches. See Clocks and watches*.

Use phrases as headings.—A phrase is used as a heading only when the subject cannot be expressed correctly by a noun. The following are examples of phrases used as subject headings:

Japanese in the United States
Strength of materials
Women in politics

Define terms when necessary.—If a dependable catalog is to be made, catalogers must define the terms that allow of several interpretations.⁸ Otherwise headings may be used incorrectly. For example, the two headings *Microphotography* and *Photomicrography* might easily be confused if definitions were not supplied.

A simpler example is afforded by the headings relating to clothing, dress, and costume. The compound heading *Clothing and dress* could be defined to serve general works treating the subject from the standpoint of utility and for works on the art of dress. On the other hand, the heading *Costume* could be defined so that it would include descriptive and historical works on costumes or modes of dress among various nations and at different periods; it would include styles peculiar to particular professions, to classes of people, or to individuals; it would also include works on fancy dress and costumes for special occasions such as court receptions, carnivals, masquerades, etc.

Definitions once worked out should be filed in the catalog department for official use. In the process of working them out, cross references may be indicated that otherwise might go unconsidered. Thus the definition for the heading *Costume* immediately suggests a reference *Fancy dress. See Costume.*

(1) **DEFINITION AS A PART OF THE HEADING.**—If the same term has two or more meanings, it is necessary to include as a part of the caption the word or phrase which defines the term. Unless this is done the two terms cannot be separately filed. *Masks* for the face and *Masks (Plays)* are two quite different subjects, and must be distinguished both for filing and for defining the difference in use. In this case also it must not be forgotten that someone will look for *Masques* instead of *Masks*. Words variously spelled should have references from the form not used to the one accepted.

(2) **DEFINING AMBIGUOUS TERMS FOR THE READER.**—At times it is valuable to give definitions to readers who use the catalog, so that they may know just why some books are entered under a certain heading and why others are omitted. Such a case is illustrated by the two headings *Anglo-Saxons* and *Anglo-Saxon race* as used by the Library of Congress. *Anglo-Saxon race* is used for "works on the nations of Anglo-Saxon descent," and the heading *Anglo-Saxons* is used for "works on the Anglo-Saxons until the time of the conquest (approximately)." Such definitions may well be

⁸ A certain number of definitions will be found in the Library of Congress list of subject headings. Special lists, such as the one for educational headings compiled by Miss Clyde Pettus, may furnish very useful definitions.

included in the public catalog. Frequently they can be given on the card that lists the *see also* references.

2. Persons as subjects: biography and criticism.—The name of a person may be used as a subject heading as well as an author heading or added entry. The form of name must be the same so that these different types of entry can file next to one another in the card catalog. A biography of Browning is entered under *Browning, Robert*. A criticism of his *Ring and the book*, being a critical study of an individual work, is entered under *Browning, Robert. Ring and the book* so that it will be filed immediately following the title concerned.

3. Subdivision of headings.—The tendency to group under one subject heading all books in a given field is desirable up to a certain point, but such a procedure will lead to a day of reckoning when the entries under that caption become so numerous that it is difficult to differentiate between titles. When this happens the subject must be subdivided. For example, if there are thirty-five or fifty cards under *Drama*, the cataloger should go over them carefully, select all those treating the history and criticism of the drama, the technique of the drama, and other special phases, and segregate them from the general books. The headings would then read:

Drama
Drama—Collections
Drama—History and criticism
Drama—19th century
Drama—Technique

When the average library reaches the fifty thousand volume mark, subject headings demand more attention than at any other time because many of the broad headings begin to need expansion. A new book, for example, on the subject of drama in the nineteenth century may be more useful if set apart under its specific subheading; in that case, all titles already in the catalog under the heading *Drama* must be examined to discover those which treat this period. Unless this is done, the assistant or reader who consults the heading *Drama—19th century* may find only one book, whereas the library actually has four or five buried under the old heading *Drama*. As every new heading is accepted, the cataloger must go back and collect the old titles which should now be grouped with the new titles under a new caption or a new subdivision. The work constantly demands that the cataloger take two steps forward and one back if the catalog is to be kept alive and progressive. This is one of the reasons why cataloging often seems slow to the uninitiated; they do not realize that the catalog is constantly in need of readjustment and that new and different subjects must be correlated with all that has gone before.

Subjects limited by form.—Form subdivisions for subject headings are usually similar to those found in any system of classification. They may be used whenever it is necessary to subdivide. The most common are:

Addresses, essays, lectures.—Bibliography.—Biography.—Collected works.—Collections.—Dictionaries.—Directories.—Drama.—Fiction.—Handbooks, manuals, etc.—History.—Outlines, syllabi, etc.—Periodicals.—Poetry.—Statistics.—Stories.⁹—Study and teaching.

Since readers may look for all dictionaries, for example, under this word, a reference must be made to show how these are entered in the catalog. This is what is called a *general reference* or *information card*. It does not refer to any definite subject or books but merely shows the reader what policy is followed in entering books written in a certain form. For example:

Dictionaries.

For dictionaries of a special language or subject consult the subdivision *Dictionaries* under the names of languages and subjects, e.g., *English language—Dictionaries*; *Chemistry—Dictionaries*.

A book on how to compile a dictionary would have to be listed under the heading *Dictionaries*. Many form headings have to be used as subheadings as well as independent subject headings.

Subjects limited by time or period.—History headings may be subdivided by period. These subdivisions may be expressed by events, dates, or both. For example:

France—History—Wars of the Huguenots, 1562-1598
U.S.—History—1783-1865
U.S.—History—Civil war

Such subdivisions are interpreted and filed chronologically. A reference should be made from any period that has a distinctive name, such as *French revolution*. See *France—History—Revolution*.

Some subjects are definitely limited by time, as *Art, Ancient*; *Philosophy, Modern*; and *Civilization, Medieval*. The beginner should use such headings only after checking them with a printed list of headings. They are used only with subjects which lend themselves to such treatment. A book on modern methods of heating houses would not take the heading *Heating, Modern*. What is modern today may be out of date in a year or two.

4. **Current or new headings.**—Headings for newly developed subjects may be considered as tentative until their use has become established. The cataloger must be sure that the term is not merely a new name for an old

⁹ *Stories* is used as a subheading for juvenile books while *Fiction* is the subheading for adult books.

topic. If it is, a *see* reference should probably be made from the new to the old heading; but as soon as the new heading has become fixed, or has come into common use, the old heading must be changed and a reference made from it to the new term. The current periodical indexes may prove helpful in determining such trends.

New headings may originate in the following ways:

1. entirely new terms, as *Sulfanilamide*
2. change in terminology, as *Home economics* in place of *Domestic economy*
3. subject divided, as *Junior high schools* where the material was formerly under the general heading *High schools*
4. new subdivision used under a heading already established, as *Economics-Experimental methods*
5. change in the form of a heading, as *Lilies* in place of *Lily*
6. new cross reference made, as *Zoning*. See *Cities and towns-Planning-Zone system*
7. change in place names, as *Thailand* instead of *Siam*

III. Headings for Form Books

1. **For books having a definite use.**—There is a demand for books that have a special use. Headings representing such books are *Readers and speakers*; *Debates and debating*; *Quotations*; *Scientific recreations*; etc. These headings are not illustrative of the subject of the books but rather of their adaptability to a special need. Headings of this type must be chosen with discretion; in fact, they should be limited to those given in the printed lists of subject headings.

The heading *Debates and debating* is used to include subject books on debating which cannot be given either *Oratory* or *Parliamentary practice*, as well as books covering topics worked out for debate, such as those in the "Debater's Handbook Series."

2. **For literature.**—Some readers wish to know what books the library has in literary forms (such as poetry, drama, essays, wit and humor) written by individual authors. These books have little or no subject value, but they may be grouped together under form to allow the reader to see what the library has by English poets, French poets, German dramatists, English dramatists, etc. When introduced into the dictionary catalog, these groups usually duplicate the arrangement of cards in the shelf list and of books on the shelves. For this reason, most libraries do not feel warranted in filling up the dictionary catalog with such entries. The patrons of small libraries that have open access would prefer to make their selection by looking over the books, and the large library with closed shelves would find these classes so bulky in the dictionary catalog that they would doubtless prefer to answer questions from the shelf list. Their omission from the catalog is not serious since such books are most frequently wanted be-

cause of their authors. One usually reads poetry and drama, not to exhaust the collection, but to satisfy a desire to know the work of a certain writer; therefore the author entry is the most important one in cataloging these books.

Since libraries seldom make form entries for individual literary works, these appear in the catalog under (1) author and (2) title when necessary. For example, Edwin Arlington Robinson's *The man who died twice* would not have the form heading *American poetry* but would be entered by author and by title.

Some libraries use a reference card in the catalog to direct readers to the numbers on the shelves where the particular literary form may be found. A reference of this kind might read:

Poetry.

See the books on the shelves under the numbers 811, 821, 831, 841, etc.

Collections.—Form headings are commonly given to collections of plays, poems, and other literary works by various authors. The subheading *Collections* is added to the form heading. Thus *Poetry—Collections* would be used for an anthology containing poems by writers of different nationalities, but if the anthology were limited to poems by English writers the heading would be *English poetry—Collections*. Anthologies limited by type may be given more specific form headings, such as *Patriotic poetry* or *Religious poetry*.

Fiction in the dictionary catalog.—Novels and short stories are sometimes grouped together in a dictionary catalog so that the reader may choose *Sea stories*, *College stories*, etc.

Historical novels have subject value in various kinds of library. They may be listed in the dictionary catalog by the same subject heading as that used for nonfiction but with the subheading *Fiction* added, e.g., *France—History—Revolution—Fiction* or *U. S.—History—Civil war—Fiction*. The subject heading *Historical fiction* is restricted to works about historical novels.

3. For languages.—The subject headings for languages follow closely those for literature. A study of such headings should begin in the Sears list with the heading *Language and languages*. By following up the chain of references from this heading the student can see the whole plan for assigning language headings. The subheadings given under *English language* and also under *English literature* may be used under other languages and literatures unless otherwise specified.

Books written in languages that are less known to us may be grouped together, regardless of their subject or form value, under the name of the language. An individual work in Japanese would then take the heading *Japanese language—Texts*, while a collection would take the heading

Japanese language—Collections. In such cases the language value may be more important than the subject treated, and by this method all the books in the language and about the language are brought together in the catalog.

IV. Subject Cross References

Subject references in a dictionary catalog are of two kinds: (1) those which refer from a term under which no books are entered to the relevant term under which the books appear; and (2) those which refer from a term under which books are entered to another related term under which books are also entered. The former are called *see* references and the latter *see also* references. *See* references should be made freely whenever occasion demands. *See also* references are needed when there is enough subject material in the catalog to require correlating. They are made to help a reader find additional material on the subject he is looking up. They introduce an element of logic into the dictionary catalog by suggesting related topics.

It is almost impossible to make rules for the use of *see also* references. The thing to remember is the purpose of such references. They must be made as judgment dictates, and the cataloger must constantly draw on his knowledge of classification as well as his information of subjects.

It is wise for the beginner to conform to printed lists of subject headings and to follow closely the references given. The suggestions found there should not be accepted without thought and consideration. It is only by analyzing the whys and wherefores of these suggested references that one comes to understand their use.

1. **References from general to specific terms.**—One rule which is generally followed is to refer from a larger to a smaller subject, but not back from the smaller to the larger: e.g., one would make a *see also* reference from *Geology* to *Earthquakes*, but not from *Earthquakes* to *Geology*. Such references leave something to be desired in the dictionary catalog and one sees at once that the reader's attack in using the catalog is direct, provided he knows exactly what he wants. The following just criticism of the catalog on this score has been made by Cutter:

If . . . the library has no book or article sufficiently important to be catalogued on that [specific] topic, he must look . . . in some more comprehensive work in which he will find it treated, (as the history of Assyrian art is related in the [general] histories of Art,) in which case he will get no help whatever from any dictionary catalogue yet made, in finding the general work, but must trust to his own knowledge of the subject and of ordinary classification to guide him to the including class.¹⁰

This statement may be amplified by an example: The reader who wants

¹⁰ C. A. Cutter, "Library catalogues," U.S. Bureau of Education. *Public libraries in the United States of America* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1876), pt.1, p.532-33.

information on glaciers may find nothing in the card catalog under this subject because the library has no single book on the subject, nor has it analyzed parts of books treating the topic. He is unaware of the fact that many titles listed under the heading *Geology* will have chapters on glaciers, and he may leave the library without being able to discover the book which will help him.

There has been much discussion as to the wisdom of referring a reader from a smaller to a larger subject by means of *see also* references. Some argue that the titles entered under the general subject cannot possibly give as satisfactory information on the specific subject as can be given in a book devoted to the specific subject alone. In other words, a book on glaciers would be more complete than a chapter on this subject treated in a work on geology. This is probably true, all things being equal, but if the general book is of later date, it can furnish later and perhaps better information than the specific book; or if it is treated by a greater authority, it will have more weight. The way to make the best use of the specific information in the general book is to make an analytic for the chapter or part treating of the smaller subject, but many libraries cannot afford to do such work.

Analytics, however, do not answer the question of showing the reader where he will find the general books entered. Some libraries have met this need by a *general information reference card*. Such a card has been successfully used where many analytics were desirable but where the work entailed in making them seemed insurmountable. The card filed in the catalog under *Glaciers* reads thus:

Glaciers.

Chapters on this subject will often be found in the books entered in this catalog under the heading *Geology*.

A printed form may be used to which the headings *Glaciers* and *Geology* may be added; thus a reference card is quickly available. Since this card refers to no particular book, it can remain in the catalog indefinitely or until the general books are withdrawn. The best guides in making these references are the general books themselves.

These information cards are useful in branch library catalogs, school library catalogs, and in small library catalogs where the general books must be made to yield their full contents. They are really indefinite analytical reference cards and serve to furnish a guide which is otherwise lacking in the dictionary catalog. The large library could use the same method, but since a larger collection would usually have books treating the specific subject such a card would not be so necessary.

2. "See also" references.—Logically *see also* references should not be made from subjects under which no books are entered. For example, if a library had no books under the subject heading *Building materials* but

had some under the heading *Concrete*, it might seem somewhat incongruous to tell the reader who looks under the heading *Building materials* to see also *Concrete*; but as a matter of practical use it is better to misuse the word "also" than to have the reader lose a reference to the books on concrete because he happened to begin his search with the heading *Building materials*. If these references are made as soon as new headings are chosen, there is less danger of the cataloger's neglecting to make them later.

Two forms of *see also* reference cards are now in use:

Diplomacy. See also

Consuls; Diplomatic and consular service; Diplomats.

Diplomacy.

Material on this subject will also be found under *Consuls; Diplomatic and consular service; Diplomats.*

The first is brief and direct, while the second is more explanatory and may, therefore, be more easily understood by the users of the catalog.

V. Number of Headings for a Book

The student has already observed that the catalog may list a book under any number of subject headings. A book on travel in France and Germany would be entered in the dictionary catalog under each of these countries, and a collection of poetry about California would appear under *Poetry of places—California* and also under *California—Description—Poetry*. The book *The language and thought of the child* by Jean Piaget would have the headings *Child study* and also *Language and languages*.

Theory and application are often treated in one book and, if the emphasis is equal, the two subjects should appear in the catalog. This is illustrated by *Foundations of bridges*. This book contributes to the theory of foundation work and also to the subject of bridges. The two subject headings are *Foundations* and *Bridges*. The book *Psychological tests of musical talent* is another which contributes to two quite different fields, *Music—Psychology* and *Mental tests*.

We have noted that some books have a direct application to a place and also have a specific subject value apart from the place. *Romanesque architecture in France* is a work of this kind. It is valuable as a contribution to *Architecture, Romanesque*, quite independent of its application to France, but it is also useful to the person who wants a book on the architecture of France. Here the book should be given the two subject headings *Architecture, Romanesque* and *Architecture—France*.

Do not use too many headings for one book.—Caution must be exercised against multiplying headings unnecessarily. The beginner is tempted to give too many headings and so overload the catalog with subject entries which are of little use.

A list of "don'ts" may help the student to avoid such errors.

1. Don't enter under both subject and form: e.g., a book of essays on astronomy should be entered under *Astronomy*, not under *Essays*.
2. Don't enter under place and subject when the subject does not lend itself to local treatment: e.g., a book on research in the field of radio made in Germany should be entered under *Radio* but not under *Germany*.
3. Don't enter a book both under the general and also under the specific subject: e.g., a work on natural history as studied through bird life needs the heading *Birds* but not the heading *Natural history*.
4. Don't enter under the subject and also under the type of reader for whom the book was prepared: e.g., a book entitled *Aviation, a handbook for women* should not be listed under *Women* but only under *Aeronautics*.
5. Don't enter events taking place in a certain locality under the event and also the place: e.g., a description of the Olympic games held in France should be entered under *Olympic games—Revival, 1896-* but not under *France*. If the country heading is wanted *Sports—France* could be used, not *France—Olympic games*.

VI. Subject Analyticals

The kind and size of the library must influence the cataloger in the number of analytical entries to be made. Small, school, and special libraries need to get the most out of every book. An effective way to exploit a collection is to provide the catalog with analyticals. These are entries for parts of works which are not generally independent bibliographical units. Author and title analyticals are frequently made for literary works; subject analyticals are made whenever desirable for nonfiction.

✓Books treating a variety of subjects or whose general theme can be divided into useful specific headings should be analyzed as a rule in small, school, and special libraries. Such books include:

1. Collective biography
2. History and description of special places
3. Collections of essays which have subject value
4. Natural histories with chapters on birds, fishes, etc.
5. Collections of holiday material
6. General descriptive books, including some books dealing with specific subjects: e.g., a book on forestry might have a chapter on *Arbor Day*; one on mining in South Africa might have a chapter on *diamonds*; while a book on industries might have chapters on specific industries
7. Books issued in a series of monographs

As a library increases in size, the number of subject analytics will probably become less because whole books on a specific subject will be available which will be more satisfactory than the parts of a more general book. Demand will be a large factor in deciding how many and what subject analytics to make.

In large libraries, analyticals will in most cases be limited to monographs contained in series and to important contributions in the transactions of learned societies.

Elimination of subject analyticals.—Printed indexes contain many analyticals and can be used to save the cataloger the necessity of putting those analyticals in the card catalog. The Queens Borough Public Library has adopted this plan.

A policy of reducing the number of analytics has been followed for some time. The Branch Reference Department arranges to supply all branches with copies of *Firkins' Index to plays* and her *Index to short stories*, the *Essay index*, and the *Standard catalogs*. The new *Sutton Speech index* will be obtained when funds are secured. If the Branch Reference Librarian is unable to locate through the Branch catalog or in these indexes the information she wants, the inquiry is referred to the Branch Reference Interloan Department where a larger number of sources may be consulted. This enables the Cataloging Department to dispense with the costly labor of analyzing the books listed in these indexes, thereby filling the union catalog and branch catalogs with cards for analytic topics which may never be sought for.¹¹

A form card could be used in the dictionary catalog calling attention to these indexes. It might read:

Speeches.

For an index to speeches see the *Speech index* in book form on the shelf near this catalog.

References

References and the questions for study have been combined with those covering Chapter X and will be found at the end of that chapter.

¹¹ E. S. Radtke, "Centralized cataloging in the large library," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, VI (1937), 78.

X

Aids in the Choice of Subject Headings; Official Records

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|---|--|
| 1. Dictionary Catalogs in Book Form | 7. Simplification of headings on L. C. cards |
| II. Printed Lists of Subject Headings | III. Official Records of Subject Headings |
| 1. A.L.A. list | 1. Checked book list |
| 2. Sears list | 2. Card list of headings |
| 3. Library of Congress subject headings | 3. List of headings in the catalog |
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The student may wonder how order could come out of such a multiplicity of entries as we find in the dictionary catalog. For that reason we shall here consider some of the aids that are used in the preparation of the subject catalog.

We naturally turn to printed catalogs and bibliographical guides because they have served in a similar or analogous case and because we realize the advantages to be gained in making our tool uniform with other guides.

Cutter's *Rules for a dictionary catalog* was the first American code of catalog rules to receive universal recognition. It was issued in 1876 as the second part of the Bureau of Education's special report on *Public libraries in the United States of America*. A second, enlarged edition was issued in 1889, a third with additions, corrections, and an alphabetical index, in 1891, and the fourth edition in rewritten form was published in 1904. It has been issued as a separate and may be secured from the Superintendent of Documents at Washington.

This is the only code which attempts to cover the dictionary catalog as a whole. Rules for the author, title, and subject catalogs are included, and the reason for each rule is stated. The section devoted to the choice of subject headings is still useful.

Mr. Cutter looked into the future in the fourth edition when he said:

In the last two years a great change has come upon the status of cataloging in the United States. The Library of Congress has begun furnishing its printed catalog cards on such liberal terms that any new library would be very foolish not to make its catalog mainly of them, and the older libraries find them a valuable assistance in the cataloging of their accessions, not so much because they are cheaper as because in the case of most libraries they are better than the library is likely to make for itself.

The differences between these rules [Cutter's] and those adopted by the Library of Congress are of two classes. The first class of differences is in trifles of punctuation, capitalization, the place of certain items on the cards, and the like. If one already has a catalog with a large number of cards, and merely inserts in it as many of the Library of Congress cards as possible, I see no reason for altering one's own style, either on the past accumulations or on the new cards that one is to write. The two kinds of cards can stand together in the drawers and the public will never notice the difference. But if one is commencing a new catalog, to be composed mainly of Library of Congress cards, I advise following the Library of Congress rules closely. It will save much trouble.

In the second class of differences, those relating to place of entry of the card in the catalog, or of choice of heading, we must note that it is very easy to alter the entry of a Library of Congress card, as there is room enough above the heading on the printed card to write in the one preferred. A librarian who already has a large catalog will therefore find no difficulty in continuing his present heading and need change only if he thinks the Library of Congress practice better. Nevertheless, as it is some trouble to look for differences of practice, and there is always a chance of overlooking one and so getting different entries for similar books, it would be well to adopt the Library of Congress rules unless there is some decided reason against them. The librarian who is just commencing his catalog has still more reason for this course.

Cataloguing is an art, not a science. No rules can take the place of experience and good judgment, but some of the results of experience may be best indicated by rules.¹

I. Dictionary Catalogs in Book Form

For many years the cataloger's only guides to subject headings were dictionary book catalogs. The best known and most influential of these were those of the Boston Athenaeum and of the Peabody Institute of Baltimore. Now printed lists of subject headings are used instead, but these have one disadvantage over the book catalogs in that they do not list books along with the subject headings. The entries in the dictionary book catalogs were of the greatest help in explaining the purport of the subject headings.

¹ C. A. Cutter, *Rules for a dictionary catalog* (4th ed.; Washington: Govt. print off., 1904), p.5-6.

II. Printed Lists of Subject Headings

While printed dictionary catalogs served the large library, a demand soon came for a more simple list of subject headings which would answer the needs of the smaller libraries. As a result, in 1892, a committee of the American Library Association was appointed for the purpose of collecting catalogs and compiling from them a list of subject headings which would represent the most approved usage.

1. **A.L.A. list.**—The result of this work was printed by the American Library Association in 1895 as the *A.L.A. List of subject headings for use in dictionary catalogs*. The third edition, published in 1911, was a volume of 398 pages.² It is now out of print and will not be reissued because of the existence of the L. C. and Sears lists. It was, however, widely accepted by libraries and became a valuable tool in standardizing headings and in bringing uniformity into dictionary catalogs. The student should analyze those features in it which contributed to its popularity among users.

2. **Sears list.**—When the A.L.A. list was given up, the needs of small libraries were met by the *List of subject headings for small libraries* compiled by Minnie E. Sears. The headings are made to conform to Library of Congress practice as far as possible, thus making it easy for a library, when it is sufficiently large, to adopt the L. C. list. Naturally the list contains fewer specific headings and fewer subheadings than the L. C. list. A feature of the fourth edition is the inclusion of Dewey numbers with the appropriate subject headings wherever practicable.

The subdivisions which may be used under any country are gathered under *United States*; those that may be used under any city can be borrowed from the subheadings under *Chicago*; while the subdivisions for languages and literatures can be taken from those under *English language* and *English literature*. The list contains valuable explanatory notes in connection with many of the headings. Examples will be found under *Explorers*, *Gems*, *Historical fiction*, *Latin America*, *Maps*, and *Outlines and syllabi*.

3. Library of Congress subject headings—

Use by other libraries.—The headings in the Library of Congress list were chosen primarily for the dictionary catalogs in that library. They appear in the tracing on printed Library of Congress cards and hence this list is followed extensively by libraries using the card service.

Any schedule of headings compiled for the use of so large a library should not be applied elsewhere without careful scrutiny. It would be unwise for a library of fifty thousand volumes, for example, to adopt all the headings and subheadings that the Library of Congress finds neces-

² American Library Association. *List of subject headings for use in dictionary catalogs*. 3d ed., rev. by Mary Josephine Briggs (Chicago: A.L.A., 1911), 398 numb. 1.

sary for its collection of over six million volumes. Each cataloger must know the needs of his own library and make such use of the Library of Congress subject headings as will fit in with those needs. He must realize that his catalog and that of the Library of Congress may be very different, especially as the Library of Congress has closed access.

There is great danger in following any tool for whose use rules are not provided. This is particularly true when dealing with thousands of terms which may or may not stand for the subject of which the book in hand treats. Just as much judgment and care are required in using a list of subject headings as in determining the subject of a book. A term incorrectly interpreted and chosen may place the book out of its proper setting and give erroneous information as to its contents. It is only fair to the Library of Congress to repeat the statement that the terms were not selected with the needs of other libraries in mind. Therefore it is really valuable only to those catalogers who can use it with intelligence and who do not expect to find in it a ready-made tool which will fit every case.

Scope.—The Library of Congress began printing its subject headings in 1909. The list covers all branches of knowledge. The names of persons are, however, omitted as are also names of societies, institutions, and bodies of various kinds, names of treaties and conventions, and names of genera and species in botany and zoölogy.

Subdivisions of subjects.—Ordinarily, only distinctive subheadings or those peculiar to a subject are printed in the list. General and form subdivisions, such as *Description and travel*, *Directories*, and *Periodicals*, which may properly be used under any subject requiring them, are as a rule omitted. They are included in a special pamphlet entitled *Subject subdivisions*.

References.—The *see* and *see also* references are contained in the main list. The *refer from* references are given in a separate alphabet; they are included for the first time in the fourth edition of the list.

Classification symbol.—In many cases L. C. classification symbols follow the subject headings, indicating where books dealing with those subjects are classified according to the Library of Congress scheme. In this limited way the list furnishes a relative index to the L. C. classification.

Complete edition.—The fourth is the latest edition of the list of *Subject headings used in the dictionary catalogues of the Library of Congress*. By arrangement with the Library of Congress, the H. W. Wilson Company now publishes the supplements to L. C. subject headings formerly printed and distributed quarterly by the Government Printing Office. From 1943 on, new headings and revisions will be published and cumulated monthly, with a complete cumulation at the end of the year.

The Library of Congress has issued the following pamphlets to be used as supplements to the complete edition.

- U.S. Library of Congress. Catalog Division. Subject subdivisions: (A) under names of countries, states, etc., (B) under names of cities, (C) under general subjects. 6th ed. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1924. 85p.
- Subject headings with local subdivision: (A) headings with indirect subdivision, (B) headings with direct subdivision, and (C) list of local divisions (states, provinces, etc.) to which subdivision is always direct. 5th ed. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1935. 36p.
- Literature subject headings with list for Shakespeare collections and language subject headings. 5th ed. Washington: Govt. print. off., 1926. 147p.

Subject headings on printed catalog cards.—The printed cards interpret the Library of Congress list of subject headings for catalogers. On these cards may be found the first listing of new headings and subheadings as they are adopted.

4. Value of lists of subject headings.—With the Sears list for small libraries and the L. C. list for larger ones, the foundation for subject heading work seems sounder than it has ever been. Greater consistency in headings is sure to come from the increased application of these standard tools. The value of such lists is to be measured in terms of such factors as the ever growing use of Library of Congress printed cards, the successful use of Sears headings on Wilson printed cards, the further development of cooperative cataloging, and the extent to which catalogers move from one library to another.

No cataloger should be so dependent on a printed list of terms that he fails to appreciate and develop suitable policies for his own dictionary catalog. While all printed lists are based on sound logic and definite policies of their own, they cannot be accepted in their entirety by all libraries. Local needs, the age of the catalog, the size of a collection, and the demands of readers must dictate the policies in individual libraries. The lists can be accepted for the standards they set and the suggestions they offer, but the same keenness of discernment that went into their compilation should go into their application. In employing the Sears or the L. C. list the cataloger is establishing headings for his own catalog, selecting those which suit its needs and which cover the subjects represented in the library's collections.

A printed list of subject headings can provide most of the terms required for all ordinary purposes. Superior and effective work may often be done by adopting headings not in the printed list in order to take care of special situations. The following incident shows how good service can be rendered by such a method. Some engineers were talking one day about their study of bridge failures. This at once interested the cataloger who set to work to collect references on the subject and list them in the catalog. Beginning with the Quebec Bridge, which was one of the outstanding failures, the cataloger traced references to other bridges which had collapsed until there was a useful group of entries in the catalog un-

der the heading *Bridges—Failures*. A reference was made from *Bridge failures*. These terms were not in the printed lists of subject headings but their employment in that catalog was much appreciated.

5. **Selection of terms from a printed list.**—No subject headings can be selected for a book until it has been studied. The cataloger will examine the table of contents and the preface to determine the principal themes; he will glance through the text, reading such passages as seem particularly important; and after he has done all this, he will begin to take the wording of the title into account, and more especially the wording of the subtitle.

After the subject of a book has been determined, the printed list may be consulted to see if it contains a term that conveys the same meaning as that subject has. In the process of selecting the suitable heading, the cataloger will read through the list of related headings grouped under the references. It may well be that a specific term will be found in that way and one that fits the book precisely. For example, the cataloger may consider that a book deals with economic consumption and hence turns to the heading *Consumption (Economics)*. When the references are examined, the term *Prices* is noted and the cataloger gains a new point of view. On second consideration the cataloger realizes that the heading *Prices* most nearly describes the book, for it is that aspect of the subject that is treated and emphasized and not the larger subject of economic consumption.

When a decision has been made in a library to follow a printed list of headings, the advantage lies in copying the exact form of any headings used. The same punctuation, spelling, and capitalization should be employed, unless the catalog has already followed a different style.

Both the Library of Congress and the Sears lists use a long dash between headings and subheadings. A comma is used in inverted headings such as *Pottery, Chinese and Catalogs, Subject*. Qualifying words are enclosed in curves as, for example, in *Camps (Military)* and the curves take the place of punctuation.

The following examples illustrate the different forms used for subject headings:

Noun	<i>Botany</i>
Compound heading	<i>Labor and laboring classes</i>
Qualified heading	<i>Eastern question (Far East); Masks (Plays)</i>
Phrase	<i>Women as authors</i>
Adjectival heading	<i>Agricultural credit; English language</i>
Inverted heading	<i>Chemistry, Technical</i>
Subheading	<i>Railroads—Finance</i>
Regional division	<i>World war, 1939. —U.S.</i>
Subdivision of a place	<i>U.S.—Industries</i>
Form subdivision	<i>France—History—Revolution—Fiction; Music—Periodicals</i>
Period subdivision	<i>U.S.—History—1783-1865; U.S.—History—Civil war</i>

6. **Changing headings to conform to a printed list.**—The selection of subject headings for a new catalog is far less complicated than the choice of new headings for a catalog that is already functioning. The chain of interrelated topics in a dictionary catalog is so tied up by references that it is difficult to make changes without disorganizing the whole plan. If the cataloger is beginning a new catalog, he has many aids to guide him in the choice of headings, and if he adopts one of the standard lists, he can be quite sure of developing a consistent and uniform catalog. If, on the other hand, his problem is to fit new subjects into an old catalog, he will then find that the headings already in use do not coincide with those suggested in the printed lists.

No fixed rules can be formulated to guide the cataloger in making changes in a catalog started before printed lists of subject headings were available. Much depends upon the number of entries already in the catalog and the importance of the change. The adoption of different headings may well mean changes in references, involving often the reprinting or retyping of many catalog cards as well as the correction of other records. The average library cannot afford to add much of this kind of work to its routine. The local library's headings may be as satisfactory as those suggested in the printed lists; therefore, when one contemplates changing merely for the sake of conformity, he should weigh its value carefully before he becomes involved in the task of correcting a host of references and records.

Naturally, obsolete and out-of-date terms which the reader would seldom consult ought to be changed. For example, the term *Consumption* has been replaced by *Tuberculosis*, a heading the cataloger would naturally want to adopt since practically all readers would look for it rather than for the obsolescent term *Consumption*. A catalog must be kept reasonably modern, but sometimes it is unwise to change terms when a reference from a new term to the term already in use will answer. For example, *Trade unions* has been recommended by Sears as against *Labor unions* as used in the A.L.A. list. *Trade unions* is probably more modern, but there is little to be gained in listing those books on trade unions with other headings beginning with *Trade*; therefore it would seem much more sensible to make a reference from *Trade unions* to *Labor unions* than to change all the cards filed under the old term.

Every local library will have problems peculiar to its particular collection, and no cataloger should ever be afraid of making changes or deviating from a prescribed list of headings when he is acting on grounds of expediency. The following points should be taken into consideration before changing subject headings to conform to terms in printed lists:

1. Are there many cards bearing the heading to be changed?
2. Are there many references to be changed?

3. What effect will the change have on allied subjects? For instance, if *Electric currents* were to be changed to *Currents*, *Electric*, the books on electric currents would be separated from those on other phases of electricity. Is that separation desirable?
4. How many books on this subject is the library likely to receive? For example, if the library has used *Bicycling* and the Sears list recommends *Cycling*, it might not pay to change to *Cycling* because few, if any, books on this subject are being issued. A reference would suffice.
5. What is the advantage of the change to the user of the catalog?

7. **Simplification of headings on L. C. cards.**—The Library of Congress subject headings have been compiled for a very large library. Many of the headings found on the printed cards may be shortened and many may be eliminated.

As an example of what may be done, Maurice Leven's *The incomes of physicians; an economic and statistical analysis* may be taken. The Library of Congress assigned four subject headings to it in addition to a title entry. The headings are: *Physicians—U. S.*; *Medicine—Practice*; *Medicine—Fees and fee-bills*; and *Medical economics*. The first heading, or even the first heading without the regional subdivision, would cover the book adequately for most libraries. A *see* reference from *Doctors* and one from *Medical profession* would be desirable. All other subject headings could be dispensed with. The title entry would be useful.

The following suggestions may prove helpful:

1. Omit many subheadings.
2. Adopt a general policy limiting the number of subject headings per title. Some libraries make it a rule to have no more than two subject entries for a book unless there is an important reason why more should be used.
3. Prefer general to specific headings when they are more useful in a particular library: e.g., the general heading *Heating* may in many libraries be preferable to a specific heading like *Waste heat*.
4. Prefer general to specific subheadings when there is not sufficient material to justify minute subdivision: e.g., use *English drama—History and criticism* instead of *English drama—18th century—History and criticism*.
5. Prefer the specific heading and omit the general heading when the Library of Congress uses both because the specific heading is not subdivided regionally: e.g., the Library of Congress uses the two headings *Pigeons* and *Birds—Colombia* for a book entitled *A new pigeon from Colombia*, but the average library needs the first heading only.

III. Official Records of Subject Headings

An official record of new subject headings should be made as soon as they are established to insure consistency in their use and to provide all catalogers with one approved list. Such a record affords a useful means of tracing references from one subject to another. Any one of the following methods for keeping the official list may be found satisfactory.

1. **Checked book list.**—No library will use all the headings suggested in any printed list except the library for which the list was made. Therefore, if a printed list is adopted, the headings and references used by a library should be checked in it.

Several extracts from Sears' *List of subject headings* are reproduced here to illustrate how this method works. These passages have been chosen as the ones a cataloger would consult to determine and establish the headings to be used for a book dealing with the consular service.

COPY OF SECTIONS OF PAGES 117 AND 140-141 FROM SEARS'

LIST OF SUBJECT HEADINGS FOR SMALL LIBRARIES.

✓ Consular service. *See* Diplomatic and consular service

✓ Consulates. *See* Diplomatic and consular service

✓ Consuls 382

See also ✓Diplomatic and consular service; also subdivision Diplomatic and consular service under names of countries

Refer from (see also ref.) ✓Diplomacy; ✓Diplomatic and consular service; ✓Diplomats; ✓International law and relations.

Consumers. *See* Consumption (Economics)

Consumers' cooperative societies. *See* Cooperative societies

Consumers' leagues 331.82

(Used for works dealing with organizations of consumers for the betterment of labor conditions. Not used for unions for the benefit of consumers)

Refer from (see also ref.) Clothing trade; Labor and laboring classes; Sweating system

Consumption. *See* Tuberculosis

Dinners and dining 642

See also Cookery; Desserts; Food; Menus; Table

Refer from (see ref.) Banquets; Eating; Gastronomy

Refer from (see also ref.) Caterers and catering; Cookery; Entertaining; Etiquet; Food; Menus; Table

Dinosauria 568

Dioptrics. *See* Refraction.

Diphtheria 616.9

Refer from (see also ref.) Children—Diseases; Diseases

✓ Diplomacy 341; 327

See also Ambassadors; ✓Consuls; ✓Diplomatic and consular service; ✓Diplomats; International law and relations; Treaties; also subdivision Foreign relations under names of countries, e.g., U.S.—Foreign relations

Refer from (see also ref.) ✓Diplomatic and consular service; ✓History; ✓International law and relations

✓ Diplomatic and consular service 341; 327

See also Ambassadors; ✓Consuls; ✓Diplomacy; ✓Diplomats; International law and relations; also subdivision Diplomatic and consular service under names of countries, e.g., U.S.—Diplomatic and consular service

Refer from (see ref.) ✓Consular service; ✓Consulates; ✓Legations; Ministers (Diplomatic agents)

Refer from (see also ref.) √ Ambassadors; √ Consuls; √ Diplomacy; √ Diplomats; √ International law and relations

Diplomatic and consular service

(Used as a subdivision under names of countries, states, etc.)

Refer from (see also ref.) Consuls; *Diplomatic and consular service*

√ Diplomats 920

See also Ambassadors; √ Consuls; √ Diplomatic and consular service

Refer from (see also ref.) √ Diplomacy; √ Diplomatic and consular service; International law and relations; Statesmen

When the cataloger consults the heading *Consular service* a *see* reference is found to *Diplomatic and consular service*. That heading is then examined. If it fits the book and a decision is made to adopt it, a check in the printed list will show that it is now an established heading to be used in the library catalogs. If the reference *Consular service. See Diplomatic and consular service* is to be made for the library catalogs, it too should be checked in Sears. Observe that it should be checked once under *Consular service* and a second time in the list of *refer from* references given under the heading *Diplomatic and consular service*. Other useful references must be considered and checked in the same way if they are adopted.

The cataloger does not have to make all possible references when a new heading is being established. Some related headings may not yet be in use so the references to and from them may be made at a future date. In other cases the cataloger may not choose to use a suggested reference.

The Library of Congress list of subject headings may be marked to serve as an official list in just the same way. Such a checked list should be kept at the reference desk as well as in the cataloging room because it can be distinctly helpful to the reference staff and to readers.

2. Card list of headings.—Some catalogers prefer a card list of subject headings even though the headings may have been taken from a printed list. In such a case, each subject heading is entered on a card. The tracing for references of any kind is indicated on the same card. Such a card list is very satisfactory for large libraries.

3. List of headings in the catalog.—Some libraries depend upon the headings as they stand in the dictionary catalog. This method may be adequate for the very small library but not for the large one.

4. List of subdivisions of subjects.—Special means should be employed to list the different kinds of subdivisions.

Subjects divided by place.—The official list should show that a heading may be divided by place. A symbol such as an asterisk would show that country or smaller geographical subdivisions may be used. If direct or indirect local subdivision is used, that too should be indicated.

Form subdivisions.—A separate list of form subdivisions should be

kept. If any of these are used in abbreviated form, the approved abbreviation should be given.

Subjects also used as subdivisions.—If a heading may also be used as a subdivision under another topic, this fact should be specified in the official list. An example of this would be:

Accounting.

This heading may also be used as a subdivision under headings for special trades, such as *Electric industries—Accounting*.

IV. Other Subject-Heading Guides

There is no limit to the books on which one might draw for information that can help in the preparation of a subject catalog. Bibliographies, dictionaries, encyclopedias, gazetteers, library catalogs, etc., must supplement the printed lists of headings. It is almost useless to compile a list of the reference books that catalogers need to consult. It is far more practical to make use of Mudge's *Guide to reference books*.

1. *Subject catalogs and bibliographies.*—The most advantageous aids to the cataloger are those which give book titles, and it is for this reason that he goes frequently to subject catalogs and bibliographies. The headings used in these catalogs may suggest new and desirable terms for the dictionary catalog or may indicate the amount of subdivision that is needed. The entries under these headings may enable him to observe trends and measure the current output. The following extract from the preface to the *Subject index of the modern books acquired by the British Museum in the years 1916-1920* illustrates the way in which a subject catalog demonstrates the growth of new subjects:

The War has left its impression on the present Index in the appearance of some new headings such as "Bolshevism," "Czechoslovakia," "Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of," and "Military Service and Conscription," and the sub-heading "Rationing." . . . To it may be ascribed also a slight increase under "Prophecy" and the trebled size of the heading "Spiritualism." Its most marked effect has been a general decrease of from ten to over fifty per cent. in almost all headings of any importance.

In addition to the British Museum subject indexes, catalogers also find the London Library subject index very helpful. The latter gives more detailed subject headings than the former.

The various editions of the *A.L.A. catalog* are classified catalogs with author and subject indexes. Entries are based on information obtained from Library of Congress cards. Subject headings are suggested for each title.

Another aid is the *A.L.A. Booklist*, which gives subject headings for each item it includes. Library of Congress headings are generally used but

variations are sometimes made in the interests of simplification. It is a list suitable for the small library.

Nearly all catalogs and indexes issued by the H. W. Wilson Company furnish suggestions useful to the cataloger. These lists should be freely used as guides for subject headings. The *Cumulative book index* and the *United States catalog* are especially valuable in this respect. The *Book review digest*, among other things, gives hints that are helpful when subject headings are to be assigned for works of fiction.

2. **Periodical indexes.**—A subject may be so new that no information can be found concerning it outside of the book that is being cataloged. In this case, the cataloger will probably choose as a subject heading the term preferred by the author.

Many new headings are to be found in periodical indexes, however, since new subjects are commonly discussed in periodicals before they appear in book form. The cataloger will often be rewarded by consulting these indexes, not only by learning the term that has been chosen to express the subject, but also by finding references to articles which will elucidate the subject. In this respect, special indexes such as the *Education index* may prove more helpful than the general indexes.

3. **Special lists of subject headings.**—Two special lists of subject headings should be examined by library science students. The first is *Subject headings in education* compiled by Miss Clyde Pettus.³ It is particularly interesting for the definitions it contains. The second is *Subject headings for children's books* compiled by Elva S. Smith.⁴ It is designed to fit the needs of children's rooms in public libraries and of school libraries.

For a record of other special lists of subject headings the student is referred to Henry Black's bibliography.⁵

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Gives four reasons for making analytics and makes a plea for many of them.

SNOW, E. N. "Subject headings work for small libraries," *Michigan Library Bulletin*, XVIII (October 1927), 222-25.

VINE, GUTHRIE. "On the construction of the subject catalogue," *Library Association Record*, XI (November 1909), 486-507; discussion on 523.

An Englishman's favorable opinions on the dictionary catalog. While showing some divergence from Cutter's rules, the writer gives excellent reasons for his differences. Contains a clear discussion of country headings.

Some Practical Questions

1. Discover the headings used in the Sears and L. C. lists of subject headings, the British Museum subject index, and the *Readers' guide to periodical literature* for the following subjects:

Mound builders
Moving pictures
Religious education
Sepoy rebellion

2. What is the difference between the heading and the subheading *Statistics*?
3. What is the difference between the subject of a book and the subject heading that expresses the subject?
4. What references should be made to or from the subject heading *Motion picture plays*?
5. Which of the following headings would you prefer?

Railroads—Law or Railroad law
Geography, Commercial or Commercial geography
Commercial travelers or Travelers, Commercial

6. How would you interpret the following subject headings?

a) Government ownership of railroads	e) Railroad engineering
b) Railroads—U.S.	f) Engineers
c) Mountain railroads	g) Locomotive engineers
d) Narrow-gauge railroads	h) Carriers
	i) Freight and freightage

7. Which of the following subjects would you divide by the form division *Study and teaching*?

a) Railroad associations	g) City planning
b) Puddings	h) Landscape gardening
c) Cookery	i) Language
d) Garden cities	j) English language
e) Canals	k) German language
f) Physics	l) Gt. Brit.—History

Aids in Choice of Subject Headings



8. How many of the following references would you make?
 - a) Colophons. *See* Title page
 - b) Bohemia. *See also* Czechoslovak republic
 - c) Dairy chemistry. *See* Agricultural chemistry
 - d) Cyanotype. *See* Blue-printing
 - e) Bread. *See also* Baking
 - f) Military hospitals. *See* Hospitals, Military
9. What is the difference in meaning between the following subject headings?
 - a) Egypt—Antiquities and Egyptology
 - b) Culture and Civilization
 - c) Child study and Educational psychology
 - d) Bohemian language and Czechic language
 - e) Folk-songs, Danish and Ballads, Danish
 - f) Efficiency. Industrial and Factory management
 - g) High schools and Education. Secondary
 - h) Greek literature and Classical literature
 - i) Plate-glass and Cut glass
 - j) Logic and Thought and thinking
 - k) Spiritualism and Psychical research
10. Distinguish between the following terms. Which of them would you use as subject headings? What *see* references would you make?
 - Spanish-America
 - Latin America
 - Hispanic-America
 - Iberic-America
 - Hispano-America
11. Subdivide the heading *Mexico—History* by periods.
12. If you were compiling a bibliography on each of the following topics, what subject headings would you consult in the dictionary catalog?
 - a) Greek architecture
 - b) Shakespeare's influence on Sir Walter Scott
 - c) How to write editorials
 - d) Street scenes in London
 - e) The development of agriculture in Canada
 - f) Plays in which Queen Victoria is the central character
13. What is the difference between the form subdivisions *Collected works* and *Collections* and between *Fiction* and *Stories*?
14. Explain why subject cards are often not needed for books in the 800's.
15. In a dictionary catalog, how would you differentiate between *Animals*, *Legends and stories of*; *Fables*; *Folk-lore*; and *Legends*?
16. Assign subject headings for books dealing with the following subjects:
 - a) A history of China
 - b) The status of the Chinese in California
 - c) The Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95
 - d) The eastern question in the Far East
 - e) The war between Russia and Japan in 1904-05
 - f) The Boxer rebellion

- g) A description of China
- h) The Tartar conquest, 1643-44
- i) Foreign missions in China
- j) The siege of Peking, 1900
- k) Sinology

XI

Arrangement of the Dictionary Catalog

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| I. Filing Rules | 1. Preliminary filing |
| II. The Filing Medium | 2. Filers |
| III. Basic Practice | 3. Revision of filing |
| IV. Administrative Aspects of Filing | 4. Expansion of the catalog |
| | 5. The divided catalog |
| | 6. Uniformity of practice |

The student will come to understand the arrangement of the cards in a catalog, not by talking or reading about it, but by alphabetizing cards for himself. At first glance it would seem an easy matter to throw a lot of cards into alphabetical order. Card catalogs, however, run into thousands of entries and as their size increases many difficulties are encountered and many technicalities become involved.

I. Filing Rules

The filing code that the student should follow is the *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards*.¹ The first American code of filing rules was that printed by Cutter in his *Rules for a dictionary catalog*. Although Cutter was one of the first librarians to advocate an alphabetical catalog, he introduced many deviations from a strict alphabetical arrangement which he evidently borrowed from the classified catalog. Since his time there has been a gradual tendency to come closer to a consistent use of alphabetical principles of arrangement.

The next influential printed code was the filing manual of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. Other public libraries have printed their filing rules, as for example: Cincinnati, Cleveland, New York, and Queens. Manuals, such as Akers' *Simple library cataloging*, have devoted space to filing rules. All of these codes have many points in common, which is natural since they all belong to the tradition established by Cutter. At the same time, they differ surprisingly often. The *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards* represents the most accepted practice of the present time but

¹*A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards*, prepared by a special committee, Sophie K. Hiss, chairman (Chicago: A.L.A., 1942), viii, 109p.

it provides so many alternative rules that it cannot be expected to resolve all the differences.

II. The Filing Medium

The basis of all filing practice is the filing medium, which is the term or terms by means of which any entry is arranged in the catalog. The filing medium is a variable quantity. In some cases a surname alone is all that is needed to file by; in other cases initials, forenames, dates of birth and death, and other items taken from various places on the catalog card may also have to be taken into account.

The basic element in the filing medium is the first word or words of the heading on the card, whether it represents an author, subject, or added entry. Initial articles are commonly overlooked, but as much of the rest of the entry as is necessary to file a card without its coming into conflict with other entries is taken as the filing medium. Thus it may be built up with elements taken from the title of a book. Such elements may be the first or significant words of the title, the name of an editor or translator, the date of publication, etc.

In some instances the Library of Congress gathers together all the various elements composing the filing medium and puts them in the author heading. Such a heading is *Bible. English. 1922. Moffatt.* where the three words after Bible supply filing information.² Subject headings may likewise have filing elements introduced, as in a heading like *English language—Grammar—1870—*, where the date is not a part of the subject heading as such but is introduced to divide a particularly large block of entries.

III. Basic Practice

The filer then is confronted with the task of determining what the filing medium is to be for each entry. When the necessary words have been chosen, all entries are arranged by them and according to the letters of the English alphabet. The arrangement is word by word, alphabetizing letter by letter to the end of each word. This gives a very different result from letter-by-letter filing as the following example shows.

Word-by-word arrangement

New Amsterdam
New England
New wives for old
Newark
Newman

Letter-by-letter arrangement

New Amsterdam
Newark
New England
Newman
New wives for old

²It should be noted that such a compound heading has other values besides serving as a filing medium. By means of this device, for example, a book about the Gutenberg Bible can be given its subject heading easily. It would be *Bible. Latin. 1450-1455. Mainz. Gutenberg.*

The phrase "Nothing before something" is a way of describing word-by-word filing. The space between words is regarded as "nothing." Hence the word "new" which has nothing after it comes before the word "Newark" which has "ark" after "new."

In a dictionary catalog all author, subject, and added entries are arranged in one general alphabetical sequence. The interfiling of these types of entry is interrupted, however, when the first word of the filing medium is common to one or more of them. When this occurs, the types of entry are commonly filed in the following order: person, place, subject (provided this is neither a personal nor a place name), and title. E.g.,

Love (*personal name*)
 Love, John L. (*author entry*)
 LOVE, JOHN L. (*subject entry*)
 Love, William
LOVE (*subject heading*)
 LOVE
 LOVE—POETRY. *See* LOVE POETRY
 LOVE—QUOTATIONS, MAXIMS, ETC.
 LOVE (IN THEOLOGY)
Love (*titles, etc.*)
 Love
 Love and beauty
 Love-letters
 LOVE POETRY (*phrase subject heading*)
 Love songs old and new

This plan of arrangement, which the *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards* calls a "classed order" based on Cutter, results in groups of entries within the general alphabetical scheme. Group arrangement has resulted in many complications under extensive headings like *United States*. The *A.L.A. Filing Code* points out that "this tendency, in some cases, has been carried to an extreme which renders a card catalog unnecessarily difficult to consult. In recent years there has been a reaction in favor of a more nearly alphabetical arrangement."³ Accordingly the *Filing Code* contains two sets of rules for the order of entries, the one classed, the other alphabetical. It adds that both schemes are in use in libraries of different types and sizes and recommends both equally.

When alphabetical order is followed for various types of headings having a common main-entry-word, the entries are arranged alphabetically in the subarrangement by the word following the main-entry-word. Even here, however, strict alphabetical sequence is not obtained, for personal names are arranged before other entries beginning with the same word. This practice is adopted because readers may know only the surname of the person they are looking for in the catalog and may be confused or an-

³ *Op. cit.*, p.22.

noyed at having to search through many entries that are personal names. Nevertheless, some libraries prefer to interfile the personal names and that is the plan recommended for small libraries by Susan G. Akers.⁴ Alphabetical order, according to the plan given in the *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards*, results in a sequence such as the following:

Love, John L. (*author entry*)
 LOVE, JOHN L. (*subject entry*)
 Love, William
 LOVE (*subject heading*)
 Love (*title entry*)
 Love and beauty
 LOVE (IN THEOLOGY)
 Love-letters
 LOVE POETRY
 LOVE—QUOTATIONS, MAXIMS, ETC.
 Love songs old and new

Note that the reference *Love—Poetry*. See *Love poetry* is unnecessary when alphabetical order is followed. It is a point in favor of alphabetical order that fewer cross references are needed. In itself, this is an indication of how much simpler it is to use.

In the matter of filing surnames, the A.L.A. Filing Code follows Cutter's plan. This results in the following arrangement:

Hall, William
 Hall-Quest, Alfred
 Hall-Wood, Mary
 Hall & Patterson
 HALL FAMILY
 HALL MARKS
 HALL OF FAME

In addition, the Filing Code gives an alternative alphabetical plan which would result in the following sequence:

Hall, William
 Hall & Patterson
 HALL FAMILY
 HALL MARKS
 HALL OF FAME
 Hall-Quest, Alfred
 Hall-Wood, Mary

For the arrangement of forenames the Filing Code once again turns away from Cutter, whose scheme is given as an alternative rule. The suggested plan is alphabetical, with the subarrangement being determined by the epithet or designation of rank, etc. The Cutter arrangement results in groups which are filed in the following order: saints, popes, emperors, kings, princes and noblemen, and forenames with designations.

⁴S. G. Akers, *Simple library cataloging* (Chicago: A.L.A., 1927), p.70.

Under authors' names, whether personal or corporate, entries are generally arranged in two groups consisting of works by the author and works about him. All the works of an author (regardless of whether he is the author, joint author, compiler, editor, illustrator, translator, or a general added entry) are arranged in one group and subarranged alphabetically by the titles of his books. A criticism of a particular title, edition, or translation is filed in this group after the author entry for the work concerned. Editions of the same title may be variously arranged, depending partly on the character of the material and partly on the kind of library. Inverse chronological arrangement is often desirable for scientific and technical subjects so that a reader will find the most recent books first. The same plan or else straight chronological filing may be followed in college and university libraries for editions of literary works, as for example the poems of Milton. Public libraries may prefer an arrangement by publisher, editor, translator, or illustrator instead. The plan for arranging translations may likewise differ as between popular and reference libraries. Since popular libraries have English works and translations for the most part, they prefer to arrange each translation alphabetically under its own title. Reference libraries, on the other hand, generally prefer to arrange translations alphabetically by language immediately after the original title. Thus the original title may become part of the filing medium. To facilitate the work of the filer in this respect, the Library of Congress commonly gives the original title at the end of the tracing. The filer can take this information from such a place or, in preparing cards for filing, the name of the language in which the translation was made, together with the original title, may be typed in the upper right hand corner of the author card. If this plan is followed, reference should be made under the author's name from the title of the translation.

Special schemes of arrangement are frequently necessary for the entries under the names of classical and voluminous authors. If such schemes are followed, guide cards should indicate clearly the grouping and arrangement of the entries. The following main groups are often adopted and in the order given: (1) complete or nearly complete works, (2) selected works, selections, etc., (3) single works, and (4) works about the author. In large libraries these groups may be amplified considerably.

The filing of the entries under the word "Bible" may be very intricate when the cards under this heading are numerous. The older plan was to adopt a canonical arrangement, the order being taken from the Authorized Version. The *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards*⁵ lists 122 different groups that might have to be made according to this plan. Large and small libraries find that an alphabetical arrangement is much easier for staff and readers to use, although the Filing Code recommends that scheme for

⁵ *Op. cit.*, p.82-83.

small libraries only. It should be noted that references, as for example from the Hebrew form of name, are impossible if the canonical arrangement is followed.

Entries under place names may be particularly difficult to arrange if there are many cards under a given heading. Such entries are of the following kinds:

1. A place (city, state, country, etc.) as a corporate entry, both author and subject
2. Institutions, both as author and as subject entries
3. Place names as subjects, followed by their subheadings
4. Place names which are identical and must be qualified in some way; each of these may have entries under 1-3
5. Societies whose designation begins with a place name, both author and subject entries
6. Geographical, ecclesiastical, and other headings which begin with the same name, such as counties, towns, dioceses, etc.
7. Inverted headings such as *Concord, Battle of*
8. Names of ships, etc., e.g., *Pennsylvania (Battleship)*
9. Titles and phrase subject headings beginning with a place name

For all these different kinds of entries the *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards* outlines three separate plans. The first is a three-group arrangement, as follows: (1) corporate entries, both author and subject; (2) place names as subjects; and (3) societies, institutions, titles, and all other entries beginning with the same geographical name. The chief advantage of this scheme is that it separates document and nondocument entries. The second is a two-group arrangement which follows the same general plan but interfiles author and subject entries in one group. The third and simplest is an alphabetical arrangement, involving one group only. The student should examine these different plans carefully and pay attention to the additional examples provided in Appendix I of the Filing Code.

Subject headings may likewise be arranged according to a group plan or according to a simplified order. The group plan would organize a subject and its subheadings in the following order:

1. The subject without any subheading
2. Form and subject subdivisions, e.g., *Art—Periodicals; Art—Technique*
3. Period subdivisions, e.g., *English literature—17th century; U.S.—History—Civil war*; the subarrangement of these entries is chronological
4. Geographical subdivisions, e.g., *Art—Italy*
5. Inverted subject headings (such as *Art, Ancient; Art, Italian*) and subjects followed by an inverted phrase (such as *Birds, Protection of*)
6. Subjects followed by an expression in parenthesis, e.g., *Analysis (Chemistry); Biography (as a literary form); English literature (Collections)*
7. Phrase headings, e.g., *Art and state*

In the simpler alphabetical arrangement the filer would interfile in one alphabet, disregarding punctuation, all form, subject, and geographical subdivisions, inverted subject headings, phrase headings, etc. An example of how the two schemes work follows:

Group arrangement	Alphabetical arrangement ^a	steady-
Art	Art	its ex-
Art—Bibliography	Art, American	s been
Art—Catalogs	Art, Ancient	lesired
Art—History—19th century	Art, Baroque	
Art—History—20th century	Art—Berlin	is con-
Art—Periodicals	Art—Bibliography	imity
Art—Berlin	Art—Catalogs	eaders
Art—Greece	Art—Greece	solute
Art—Hungary	Art, Greek	ity in
Art—New York (City)	Art—History—19th century	brary.
Art—U.S.	Art—History—20th century	library
Art, American	Art—Hungary	tious.
Art, Ancient	Art, Medieval	
Art, Baroque	Art, Municipal	
Art, Greek	Art—New York (City)	
Art, Medieval	Art, Oriental	
Art, Municipal	Art—Periodicals	
Art, Oriental	Art—U.S.	

The arrangement of entries that begin with numerals is rendered difficult by the fact that the numerals must be filed as words. The general rule is to arrange them as if they were spelled out in the language of the rest of the entry. Numerals and dates are spelled as they are spoken, but omitting the word "and" as a rule. The *A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards* admits that this rule is not precise because numerals are not always spoken the same way. The student should examine carefully the examples given for the filing of numerals not only in the *A.L.A. Filing Code* but also in other filing codes.

In certain cases, numbers are filed in numerical order. When a number or a date distinguishes between entries that would otherwise be identical, the arrangement should be numerical or chronological instead of alphabetical. The names of kings and rulers, for example, are commonly subarranged numerically if there is more than one person of that name for a given country.

IV. Administrative Aspects of Filing

1. Preliminary filing.—Catalog cards cannot be filed directly into the various catalogs. They must be put through a preliminary filing. A filing

^a A still simpler alphabetical arrangement is given on p.86 of the *A.L.A. Filing Code*, in connection with the comprehensive example arranged according to the simplest alphabetical order recommended for small libraries.

board is a desirable accessory if many cards have to be handled at a time.

After the preliminary arrangement has been completed, some libraries then put the cards in a temporary file. By this method, more cards can be filed into a given tray and this makes for economical work. It has been estimated that filing does not become economical until at least ten cards have to be filed into each tray. Delays in filing, however, such as naturally follow from the use of a temporary file, may militate against good service. This is one point in a library's program where good service should come before economy of operation. It is highly desirable that all cards be filed as promptly as possible and, if the work cannot be kept reasonably up to date, at least the author cards should be filed as soon as possible in both the public and official catalogs.

2. Filers.—Filing is essentially a clerical task. In large cities where there are commercial filing schools it is possible for libraries to obtain filers who have had useful training. Some librarians believe that accurate filing cannot be done for more than two hours at a stretch. Trained filers, however, can continue to do accurate work throughout the day provided they organize their work well, have sufficiently varied things to do, and can file under satisfactory conditions.

3. Revision of filing.—After they become accustomed to the work, trained filers need little beyond general oversight. Revision of their filing should not be necessary.

In any set-up where revision is deemed necessary, "filing on the rod" is a successful plan to follow. By this method, the filer puts each card in its proper place in a tray, but without removing the rod. The reviser can then inspect the work and on approving it drop the cards into place by taking out the rod. Revision must be done promptly under this plan.

Proper supervision is more important than revision of filing. A professional member of the staff must be responsible for interpreting rules in cases of doubt, planning the expansion of the catalog, organizing the work, etc. If a library follows the plan of having one subject card only, and that for the best or latest edition of a work, for titles of which it owns a number of editions, care is needed to see that the best card is kept in the catalog. Filers are not always able to tell which is the best card and should be able to call on a supervisor to decide such matters.

4. Expansion of the catalog.—At intervals it becomes necessary to expand catalogs. The rate of growth of a catalog in recent years needs to be studied to help in determining how much additional space is required. When the necessary trays are available, the total number of inches of cards already in the catalog should be measured. It can then be found how many inches of cards should be in the average tray in the expanded catalog. All the details of the expansion should be worked out carefully and then carried out expeditiously.

5. **The divided catalog.**—Libraries that have given up their dictionary catalogs in favor of a divided catalog, with one alphabet for author entries and another for subjects, have been motivated largely by the desire to make consultation of the catalog easier. Such a tendency is in line with the trend observable in filing rules, where alphabetical arrangement is steadily supplanting group arrangements. The divided catalog is still in its experimental stages and should not be adopted by a library until it has been determined whether other simplifications may not achieve the desired results without so radical a change.

6. **Uniformity of practice.**—The library system of the country is constantly becoming more closely knit together and as it does so, uniformity of practice becomes increasingly desirable. It is important both to readers and to the staff to find catalogs filed as much alike as possible. Absolute uniformity is neither to be desired nor attained and some dissimilarity in the rules should probably always apply between different types of library. Within the one library system, however, whether it be a public library with its branches or a university library with its departmental collections, uniformity should prevail generally.

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Brings books to the reader's notice in the order of their importance. Applicable to the dictionary catalog.

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Chronological arrangement of subjects as showing the literary history of subjects.

THORNTON, J. L. Cataloguing in special libraries—a survey of methods. London: Grafton, 1938.

"Alphabetisation," p.239-45. Some problems and their solution. Not a set of rules.

WOOD, A. F., and HOLCOMB, EVELYN. "A symposium concerning union catalogs," *Library Journal*, LXI (February 1936), 90-95.

Some Practical Questions

1. What rule for the treatment of the umlaut and other modified letters would you favor for a public library and for a college library?
2. Write out the words to be used as the filing medium according to the A.L.A. Filing Code for the following titles:
 - 1066 and all that
 - 1812, ein historischer Roman
 - 1914 diary and yearbook
 - 2400 business books
 - Le XIX^e siècle
 - 1812 ouverture solennelle
3. Explain the difference between an abbreviation and an elision. How are the two filed?
4. What would you choose as the filing medium for:
 - Dickens, Charles. The personal history of David Copperfield. London, Harrap, 1930.
 - Cicero. M. Tulli Ciceronis Pro M. Caelio oratio, edited by R. G. Austin. Oxford, Clarendon press, 1933.
 - Shakespeare, William. Shakespeare for recitation. London, Routledge, 1904.
5. Locate the following entries in a library catalog and determine what filing rule has been followed for their arrangement:
 - Thomas à Becket
 - Thomas à Kempis
 - Thomas Aquinas
6. If a library catalogs kings and rulers under the English form of their names, is the filing problem simpler or more difficult than would be the case if the vernacular were preferred?
7. What answer would you give to a reader who argues that libraries should arrange entries beginning with the prefix *Mac* in the same way they are in a telephone directory?
8. How would you file a Library of Congress card with the heading *New York. Metropolitan museum of art?*

XII

The Classified Catalog

- | | |
|---|--|
| I. Plan <ul style="list-style-type: none">1. Author-and-title file2. The subject file3. The alphabetical subject index to the subject file | <ul style="list-style-type: none">2. Analytical entries3. References in the subject list4. Special types of literature |
| II. Shelf List Versus Classified Catalog | IV. Codes of Rules |
| III. Methods of Entry <ul style="list-style-type: none">1. Books covering more than one subject | V. Some Things Accomplished by the Classified Catalog |
| | VI. Adoption by Libraries |
| | VII. Types of Classified Catalogs |
| | VIII. Conclusion |

The classified catalog is based on some definite system of classification. Many of the principles introduced here have already been noted in the two schemes of classification described in Chapters IV and V.

I. Plan

The classified card catalog, if used in place of a dictionary catalog, should be composed of three separate parts or files, although strictly speaking the subject file is in itself the classified catalog. The three parts are: (1) an author-and-title file, (2) a subject or classified file, usually arranged by some well-known classification system, and (3) an alphabetical subject index to the subject file.

1. Author-and-title file.—The author-and-title section of the classified catalog is exactly like the author-and-title catalog described in Chapter VIII. The entries are full; they follow the same rules, contain exactly the same information, and are filed alphabetically by author and title. Though kept separate, this author file is an integral part of the classified catalog since it is the only part which furnishes information about the *author* and *title* resources of the library.

2. The subject file.—The subject part, or the classified catalog proper, is an elaboration of the shelf list. Its arrangement is usually based on the same classification system as that used for the arrangement of the books on the shelves. If the Decimal classification has been adopted by the

library, this system will determine the order of subject entries in the classified catalog. Again, if the Library of Congress scheme has been chosen, this plan will form the basis for subject arrangement in the classified catalog. Any system of classification that has a flexible notation may be used for making a classified catalog since any such system insures logical arrangement of subjects. Necessarily, the degree of usefulness of the classified catalog depends on the worth of the classification scheme.

It has already been indicated that both the Decimal and the Library of Congress classifications can be used to advantage for the logical arrangement of books on the shelves and that, because of the flexible notation of each, new accessions may be inserted without interrupting the logic of the system. A catalog may likewise be based on either of these systems and a similar logical arrangement may be attained for the catalog as for the shelves. The card becomes a dummy for the book, and the call number on the card, being the same as that which determines the arrangement of the book, becomes the medium of arrangement for entries in the catalog. The cards, instead of being filed alphabetically as in the author-and-title catalog, are filed by the classification symbol just as a shelf list is. For example, all cards bearing the class number 720, the number for Architecture, will come together in the catalog. These will be followed by all the cards which bear a decimal of 720, and so on.

3. The alphabetical subject index to the subject file.—This index is necessary since it answers the same purpose as the relative index to the Decimal classification. It furnishes the reader with an alphabetical key to the classification system by which the cards are arranged. For example, a reader wishing to know what books the library has on architecture may not know that 720 is the number standing for this subject. Therefore he must be able to locate the word in an alphabetical index where he is referred to the proper number. This index is made on cards to allow for the insertion of new subjects whenever they are needed. As each entry is written on a separate card, any number of index entries referring to the same number may be made. The following entries might well be made for Scientific management:

Efficiency, Industrial	658
Industrial efficiency	658
Management, Scientific	658
Scientific management	658
Works management	658

The Dewey (or other classification) number should be added to each entry instead of attempting to follow the form used for a *see* reference in the dictionary catalog. Any library which plans to make such an index should study the system in operation at the John Crerar Library in Chicago and the Engineering Societies Library in New York.

II. Shelf List Versus Classified Catalog

One may well ask why another record similar to the shelf list should be built when the shelf list is already available. One reason is that the shelf list is similar to one part of the classified catalog only; its purpose is definitely to show the history of each book in a library and to record its location on the shelf, its withdrawal, the number of copies possessed by the library, and other official items which are important as records but which have little or no interest to the user of the catalog.

A second reason is that the shelf list is frequently brief in form, noting only the items about a book which are needed for official use. The reader demands a more complete entry than that on the shelf card if he is to receive any guidance in his book selection. When he is confronted with fifty or a hundred titles on the same subject, he must have some indication on the cards to help him in differentiating between books. The date of publication, the publisher, or the fact that the book is illustrated, will help to determine his selection. Therefore, the catalog cards must be more full in details than the cards which make up the shelf list. In fact, they must be just as elaborate as the author cards which make up the author catalog.

Finally, the shelf list does not usually contain entries for parts of books (analyticals); thus, it is impossible for the reader to find in this list all the material contained in the library under any one subject.

The shelf list may serve as a subject catalog.—If the shelf list is made up of unit cards and analytical entries are added as the books are classified, the library has a classified subject catalog which is adequate for all practical purposes, *provided* an author catalog is already accessible and a good alphabetical subject index is made as a key to the classified file. Frequently libraries use the shelf list in conjunction with the dictionary catalog to answer the questions which only the classified catalog can answer, but such use is likely to cause inconvenience to the assistants who depend upon the shelf list as an official record. A good classified catalog goes so far beyond the limits of a good shelf list that the student should not confuse the two and conclude that, because the arrangement of entries is the same, the one can serve for the other.

III. Methods of Entry

1. **Books covering more than one subject.**—Books treating of two or more subjects or topics are given as many class symbols as are needed to catalog fully by subject the contents of the book. For example, a book entitled *Electricity and magnetism*, classified by the Decimal scheme, would appear in the classified catalog under two numbers: 537 for *Electricity* and 538 for *Magnetism*. Two cards exactly alike would be filed, one card

under each of these numbers. The first card would be just like a main entry, but the second would have 538 added just above the call number of the book as a filing number which would bring this card into the catalog along with all other material on magnetism. Thus, such a book has two subject cards in addition to the author card, one to file under 537, which is the same number under which the book is classed on the shelves, and another, which is an added subject number. It should be emphasized that the call number of the book must appear on every card because the book could not be located without it. It is customary to use different colors of ink for the call number and the analytical number so that the reader will not confuse the two. Black ink may be used for the call number and red ink for the number which is added above the call number as a filing number.

Black ink	→	537	Gerard, Eric.
		G31	Electricity and magnetism.
			1897.

Red ink	→	538	Gerard, Eric.
Black ink	→	537	Electricity and magnetism.
		G31	1897.

The object of these entries is to make the book appear in connection with the different fields to which it contributes. An example of this is *Mastery of the Pacific* which must appear under the foreign affairs of both Great Britain and the United States. Many books on peace contribute at the same time to international ethics and international arbitration. A book called *Citizenship in the industrial world* should have class numbers to express citizenship, laboring classes, industry and state, and organization of industry. Thus, subject and class entries for a book are determined together and are the result of one and the same process of examination.

2. Analytical entries.—If it is advisable to make analytical entries for a chapter or a bibliography in a book, or any other material which is not shown on the author or subject card, the classifier treats such a part as a separate book and classifies it so that it will fall with other material in the classed catalog treating of the same subject. For example, a general book on architecture may contain a valuable chapter on cathedrals which would be useful if it could be cataloged and filed with other entries on cathedrals. To do this, the cataloger assigns to the chapter the number for cathedrals 726.6 and a card is prepared with this number as a filing medium, so that it may be filed with the cards for the books classed under this subject. The number for cathedrals is added above the call number

in the same manner as noted on the card illustrated above. A unit card may be used by adding the title of the chapter analyzed on the card as a note.

3. References in the subject list.—References may be used to correlate subjects widely scattered in the classification scheme. By this means the reader is able to collect material that presents the various aspects of any given subject. For example, religious art belongs to two large groups, Religion and Art. If some books are classed in Religion and others in Art, a cross reference from one symbol to the other will show the reader how he may collect all the material on this subject from the two points of view. Such a reference in a classified catalog would read: 246 *See also* 755. It would be filed directly after all the cards bearing the number 246, which is the symbol for religious art from the religious viewpoint.

4. Special types of literature—

Biography.—Biographies may be treated in any one of three ways in the classified catalog. First, they may be scattered throughout the classification by subject, so that lives of economists would be classified in economics, lives of educators in education, and so on. In that event, the names of the people concerned should be brought out in the alphabetical subject index. Second, they may be grouped together in a special biography file either under the general number for biography or in an independent arrangement of their own. Third, they may be filed with the author and title cards. The third method would introduce a subject card into the author-and-title catalog but there are advantages in having works by and about an author filed together.

Fiction.—Entries may be made under the class number for fiction as in the shelf list or it may be sufficient to have them listed in the author-and-title catalog only. As with biography, a separate fiction catalog could also be created.

Other literary forms.—The classified catalog may omit such classes as drama, essays, and poetry, since readers usually look for books in these classes by author or title. It is generally sufficient for them to be listed in the author-and-title catalog only. A reference card in the classified catalog may refer under each class to the shelf list where the reader could find what would be an identical listing. There would then be no cards in the classified catalog for 821 English poetry, for example, except for the entries under 821.01-821.09.

Bible and similar sacred books.—It is unnecessary to duplicate entries in both the author and classed parts of the catalog when they are alike; a reference to the author file will be sufficient. For example, a reference card filed under 220 in the classed catalog telling the reader to consult the entries under Bible in the author file will answer every need and will also be a wise and economical measure.

IV. Codes of Rules

The entries for the author-and-title catalog should be based on the A.L.A. *Catalog rules*. The variations which must be made in this file, if it is to be properly correlated with the subject part of the catalog, are to be found in Melvil Dewey's *Library school card catalog rules*.¹

The value of Dewey's code is today limited to the making of the subject catalog. The rules for author entries and the sample cards are somewhat out of date. A new code for the compilation of the classified catalog is much needed, and should the general demand for the classified catalog be renewed, such a work would surely be worth while.

The classification system chosen as the foundation for the arrangement of a subject catalog constitutes its main code. Even more thorough study must be made of the book when a catalog is the objective than is necessary when merely classing the books for the shelves. Often it is desirable to follow a quite different policy when classifying material for the catalog, since more detailed information is needed and close classification must be followed. It is feasible to classify broadly on the shelves and much more minutely in the catalog. This plan was followed in the Engineering Societies Library in New York with very satisfactory results both in the shelf arrangement and in the classified card catalog. By this method long call numbers on the books are avoided; on the other hand, the catalog may be made as detailed as desirable by adding long filing numbers which in no way confuse the reader because he never has to copy them in order to get his book. If this is done, the catalog card generally has two class numbers: (1) the subject filing number, and (2) the call number of the book.

V. Some Things Accomplished by the Classified Catalog

1. A logical arrangement of subjects is assured because the catalog is based on a system of classification.
2. The reader is able to survey a whole field of literature as it is spread out before him in logical order.
3. The catalog shows what books are grouped together on the shelves.
4. The catalog shows the strength of the library collection in any one class.
5. Any class or subject can be printed separately in book or pamphlet form at any time.
6. An alphabetical and a logical array of subjects is combined in one catalog.
7. Because of the number of separate files, more people can use the catalog at one time.
8. The subject file may be built up of printed L. C. cards by merely transferring the classification symbol to the top of the card as a filing medium.

¹ Melvil Dewey, *Library school card catalog rules with 52 fac-similes of sample cards for author and classed catalogs*. 6th ed., rev., with marginal alternative rules (Boston: Library bureau, 1905), 72p.

VI. Adoption by Libraries

The classified catalog was much in favor in American libraries up to the year 1893. After this date there was a decided turn from the logical arrangement of subjects to the alphabetical, and the dictionary catalog came into general use. Logic was sacrificed for quick reference, and the feeling prevailed that the users of the library catalog were much more familiar with alphabetical indexes and therefore could quickly learn to use the dictionary catalog. This is undoubtedly true in the average public library, but in scholarly and special libraries the lack of logic in the dictionary catalog detracts much from its value.

Unfortunately the subject indexes to the early catalogs of the classified type were inadequate since readers might be given only the subject index as printed in the Dewey classification. This index, while adequate as an alphabetical key to the classification system, was not exhaustive enough to serve as an index to a growing catalog; subjects were not up to date and the inadequate references made it difficult to locate material. For such a reason, the classified catalog began to lose supporters, even though it is more economical to make than is the dictionary catalog because the assigning of the class number covers both the process of classification and the subject arrangement of the cards.

The classified catalog is convenient for use in centralized station work, in commission offices, school division offices, centralized departmental work in a university library, and wherever classified books must be chosen for groups outside the central library. Because the arrangement is, in most cases, the same as that of the books on the shelves, it enables one to pass quickly from the catalog to the shelves and thus to expedite the filling of book orders for outside agencies.

For libraries, particularly those in the fields of science and technology collected for the use of specialists, the classified catalog would seem to answer the demands more readily than any other type because it brings all the books of one class into a systematic whole. In Europe, this type of catalog is still used and probably has more friends than the dictionary catalog.

VII. Types of Classified Catalogs

The classified catalog in book form is very common; in fact, most of the library bulletins of accessions follow this arrangement. The classified type is probably the most economical form of book catalog. The full entry, arranged by classification symbol, is given only once and forms the main body of the catalog, while authors and the alphabetical subject list appear as indexes only. The classified printed book catalog of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh is a good example of this type as is also the *A.L.A. catalog*.

The John Crerar Library in Chicago has long maintained a classified catalog in card form based on the Decimal classification, and the Engineering Societies Library of New York has such a catalog based on the Brussels classification.

VIII. Conclusion

Catalogs must be chosen to answer the demands of the type of reader who is using the collection. What is satisfactory to the reader of popular fiction and recreational reading may not answer for the student and the specialist. The classified catalog gives the logical arrangement of subjects usually desired by scholars. They want logic in the arrangement of the books on the shelves and they find the same order useful in the catalog; therefore, the classified type would seem to be best adapted to the needs of such readers. Those using the library as a means of obtaining definite and quick service would probably find the dictionary catalog more useful.

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XIII

Progress of a Book Through the Catalog Department

I. Routing Books for Cataloging

1. Rush books
2. Locating books in process
3. Groups of books
4. Fiction
5. Nonfiction
6. Serials

7. Gifts

8. Pamphlets

II. Routine of Classification and Cataloging

1. Fiction
2. Nonfiction

III. Economical Procedures

In the following two chapters the student will be brought into closer touch with the mechanical processes involved in handling books and catalog cards. This chapter will give the routine which might be followed in a well-organized catalog department so that the student may have some idea of (1) the amount of work to be done, (2) its organization, (3) the care which must be taken to guard against waste of time and effort, and (4) the means used to accomplish economical production without sacrificing quality.

It is through this insight into the work carried on behind the scenes that one comes into possession of information necessary to deal properly with various situations as they arise and is able to visualize a specific procedure and to apply knowledge already gained through other channels to this phase of the cataloger's problem.

Routines must be evolved in a catalog department to get the books classified, cataloged, and onto the shelves, and to get the cards made and filed in the various catalogs. The discussion of these routines will be limited to the handling of current work.

We shall consider that we are dealing with a library of a hundred thousand volumes or more¹ and that Library of Congress cards are to be used as far as possible. The student should understand that the routines described are based on an imaginary library and he should always keep in mind the fact that procedures have to be varied from one institution to another by reason of the local organization and administrative policies.

¹A library of this size is chosen because it experiences the principal problems affecting routines. Smaller libraries would find that many of the steps are unnecessary for them.

Justin Winsor gave some very sound advice to librarians on this topic when he said:

You must not be surprised to find some diversity of views among experts. They arise from different experiences and because of the varying conditions under which a library may be administered. The process of one library can rarely be transplanted to another without desirable modifications, arising from some change of conditions. . . . Choose that which you naturally take to; run it, and do not decide that the other is not perfectly satisfactory to him who chose that. Whichever you have chosen, study to improve it, and you will probably do so, in so far as it becomes fitted more closely to the individuality of yourself and your library.²

I. Routing Books for Cataloging

Books and periodicals are forwarded to the catalog department from the acquisition department. We shall assume (1) that the books have been accessioned before they reach the catalog department, if that process is followed, (2) that they bear indications of the collections to which they belong, such as the central library, branches, school division, etc., (3) that the mark of library ownership appears on each book, and (4) that L. C. cards have already been ordered.

1. Rush books.—All libraries need to consider the demands which sometimes govern the priority of output from the catalog department. Books for reserved reading, for professors and other individual readers, and books in which there is a great popular interest should be cataloged as promptly as possible. A colored rush slip placed in a book before it leaves the acquisition department shows at once that the book should take precedence over other material. Each library must determine what classes of books will fall into the "rush" group. Care must be taken to see that the regular routine of work will not be continually interrupted because of rush books and to see that one department of a library or of a university will not receive all the favors.

2. Locating books in process.—Some way must be found for locating books in process of cataloging. The arrangement of such work depends on the type and bulk of material to be handled. The library of average size can adopt an alphabetical arrangement by author and title for books in process, but in larger libraries a more elaborate arrangement centering around an "in process" catalog may be necessary.

3. Groups of books.—Incoming material may naturally be divided in the catalog department into two main classes, new titles and added copies. The treatment of added copies is relatively simple and can for the most part be put in the hands of clerical assistants. New titles may be divided

² Justin Winsor, "A word to starters of libraries," *Library Journal*, I (September 1876), 2-3.

into various special groups such as fiction, nonfiction, rental books, serials, books for foreigners, gifts, and pamphlets.

Any or all of these classes of books may be arranged by date of receipt or by author and title. The date arrangement is especially desirable for added copies. If the books are arranged alphabetically, a colored slip may be placed in each one to show the month when it was received and to tell the cataloger which books must be pushed through to completion by the end of a given month. For this purpose six colored slips might be used to represent the twelve months of the year, as

January	<i>yellow</i>	July
February	<i>white</i>	August
March	<i>red</i>	September
April	<i>green</i>	October
May	<i>blue</i>	November
June	<i>brown</i>	December

By collecting, just before the first of April, for example, all books bearing a red slip, the cataloger can make certain that all books received in March are cataloged. Some libraries make the time period a week instead of a month. They receive from the acquisition department the accumulation of one week and send these books through, cataloged and recorded, by the end of the sixth day.

4. **Fiction.**—Fiction calls for the simplest form of cataloging and, since in many libraries it is given no class number, it does not have to go to the classifier. Libraries that write annotations for fiction or that assign class numbers and subject headings must naturally change the method of handling these books. Otherwise they may safely be given to a cataloger of little experience, or even to a clerical assistant, to record for the catalog and the shelf list.

5. **Nonfiction.**—Books of nonfiction may be roughly arranged by subject, and, within each group, alphabetically by author, so that catalogers may easily find the books for which they are responsible. Another plan is to arrange them in three groups, the first containing books for which L. C. cards have been received, the second those for which L. C. cards are available but have not yet been received, and the third those for which no L. C. cards can be obtained.

Both fiction and nonfiction may be divided into groups for the central library, branches, juvenile collection, school division, and stations or other agencies. Most books for branch libraries and other agencies are duplicates of items in the central library so that the routine for recording them belongs with the procedure for added copies which is described in the next chapter.

6. **Serials.**—Many publications issued in successive parts (such as annual reports, fascicles, *Hefte*, monographs in series, yearbooks, etc., but

not regular current periodicals) are forwarded to the catalog department after being checked in the acquisition department. Some of these have to be analyzed. In some libraries a serial division is organized to take care of this type of material.

7. Gifts.—The routine for handling gifts needs to vary according as they are books received in quantity from the same source, books received one at a time, or serials. The head of the catalog department or some other official should examine all gifts to determine which items the library should keep, whether any special methods of treatment should be planned, and which books should be cataloged promptly.

8. Pamphlets.—Pamphlets should be sorted as soon as they are received. Those which have any real permanent value should be treated as books; the others can be treated according to a definite plan which the library should work out. Pamphlets that are valuable enough to bind should go through the regular processes.

One of the commonest ways of handling pamphlets is to give them brief cataloging, classify them broadly, and put them in pamphlet boxes. The pamphlet boxes may be shelved either at the beginning or at the end of a class, or they may be kept together at a point convenient to the reference desk. A brief author card is often made for each item and sometimes a subject card for the whole box. Pamphlet boxes should be examined frequently to see what items can be discarded and what should be bound into pamphlet volumes.

Pamphlets are often kept in vertical files at the reference desk. In that case they are filed without being cataloged as a rule. Such items as are worth keeping permanently are cataloged after they are retired from the vertical file.

II. Routine of Classification and Cataloging

Assuming that the books are now in the hands of the catalogers, we may proceed to the methods of routing books through the processes of classification and cataloging. These processes may vary according to whether printed cards are available or not.

1. Fiction.—Many public libraries are now using Wilson cards for fiction. These are considered very satisfactory, especially for the annotations they contain. In large reference libraries where there may be many editions of a novel and where the collection is intended for research purposes, fuller entries may be needed and L. C. cards may be used.

If printed cards are not utilized, the procedure for fiction is as follows:

a) When the author's name on the title page is perfectly familiar to the cataloger (as would be the case with an author like Thomas Hardy), the catalog card and the shelf card are made at once. If book numbers are used, they are assigned at the same time. If the book is to be listed in

fewer than five catalogs, the title entries are also made immediately. If more than five catalogs have to be considered, copy is prepared for the duplicating machine.

b) When the author is not known, his name must be identified in the official or public catalog. If the name has not already been established, it must be searched for in biographical dictionaries, current indexes, and other reference books to establish the correct form and to discover whether the name is a pseudonym or not. Catalogers are not warranted in making exhaustive searches for the names of novelists. Many libraries feel that modern writers need not be searched beyond the *Cumulative book index*, the *Book review digest*, and the *Readers' guide*. An authority card is made which shows where the name was found. If book numbers are used, these are now assigned. The necessary cards are prepared as in *a*.

In both *a* and *b* the books and cards, with the exception of the shelf cards, go to a reviser who checks the work and forwards the books to be lettered. If printed cards are used, revision is unnecessary. The cards go to the filers or the copy to the duplicating machine operator. The shelf cards go to the shelf-lister for statistical purposes.

2. Nonfiction.—The classification and cataloging of nonfiction usually involves considerably more detail, especially in large libraries.

Preliminary search.—To aid the classifier and cataloger, a clerical assistant working under the direction of the cataloger does a certain amount of routine work preparatory to establishing the form of entry, such as arranging L. C. cards alphabetically by author and matching them with the books.

The cataloger in the meantime examines all books for which there are no L. C. cards and indicates the tentative author entry and all necessary added entries. A clerical assistant then makes a *process slip* for each of these books. This slip contains the author's name (as full as possible), title, imprint items, and such collation as the library uses, the tracing for any added entries which the cataloger has indicated, and the location of the books in branches or special departments.

The process slip (also called in some libraries routine slip, copy slip, guide slip, etc.) accompanies the book on its rounds through the catalog department. Some libraries use a form card for the process slip; others use the order slip. It should be of standard size and distinctive in color. The first person to receive the books after they are sorted supervises the making of this slip, and each person handling the book thereafter adds any data which will aid in cataloging and classifying it. When the book has reached the point of final revision, this card should contain all information necessary to catalog the title fully and should also show the location of the book in the library system so that the proper number of cards can be made for all catalogs. This process slip is usually used as

copy for the typist. No separate process slip is made for books that have Wilson or L. C. cards.

Searching in the library catalog.—An assistant searches for each entry in the catalog. If the author's name has already been established, the assistant writes the official form on the process slip. If other editions have already been cataloged, he notes their locations as well as any other details that may be of value to the cataloger. In cases where it might prove helpful to the classifier, he copies the class numbers of other books by the same author.

After searching, the books are divided into various groups for further treatment. New books by authors already in the catalog are forwarded immediately to the classifier. New books by authors new to the library, but for which there are L. C. cards, are likewise forwarded to the classifier since most libraries are willing to accept the author's name as printed on the cards. The principal cataloging detail with such names is to make any necessary cross references. Books that have L. C. cards which do not match the books sufficiently are turned over to a clerical assistant who makes process slips for them. Books for which no L. C. cards are available and for which further bibliographical search must be made are forwarded to the cataloger.

Classification.—In some libraries both classification and the assigning of subject headings are done by the classifier; in others the subject headings are assigned by the catalogers; while in others all functions are performed by the catalogers. We shall assume here that the classification and subject heading are done by one person and that the descriptive cataloging is done by another.

The classifier examines each book and determines its place in the classification scheme. As aids in determining the class number he will (1) look at the process slip to see where other books by the same author may have been classified; (2) he will consider the D. C. and possibly the L. C. class numbers printed at the foot of Library of Congress cards; and (3) he will inspect the shelf list to see whether similar books have been classified in the place under consideration. If analyticals are used in the shelf list or classified catalog, these numbers are assigned at this time. From this analysis of the subject of a book the classifier is now in a position to assign subject headings. He checks the possible headings with the official list and indicates any cross references to be made by writing them on the process or another slip. If the subject heading is new to the library he calls for a slip to be added to the official list.

Books with L. C. cards are then passed on to the reviser for approval before the cards are prepared for the catalogs. Some libraries omit revision for such items. Books with process slips are sent to the cataloger for completion and then are passed on to the reviser.

Descriptive cataloging.—The cataloger, being now in the possession of all items of information gathered in the preliminary search and of all decisions of the classifier, proceeds to prepare the process slip to serve as copy for duplicating. He establishes names for authors, subjects, or added entries, and indicates any cross references that are to be made. He checks the various details that make up the title, imprint, and collation. He records any notes that are to be made on the catalog card.

Revising books and cards.—The work of all catalogers should be revised, but this does not mean that each cataloger must not revise his own work as it is done. Some one person ought to see the finished work after several assistants have had a hand in it. The final reviser knows the catalog as a whole and is, therefore, in a position to unify the work of all assistants. Even the most accurate worker will at some time make mistakes. Errors should be caught at this point in the routine before cards are duplicated.

The inexperienced reviser should make for himself a list of all the items which must be noted during the process of revision, but the reviser who is accustomed to this work and who is perfectly familiar with the library routine, as well as with the capacity of each cataloger, will use his judgment and revise with discretion.

Shelf-listing.—This duty follows the revision of the catalog cards because the book number is based on the catalog entry. In some libraries shelf-listing is done by the catalogers when they are handling the book.

The shelf-lister makes either a temporary shelf card (if L. C. cards are to be used and are not yet available or if cards are to be multigraphed and one of the unit cards is to be used for the shelf list) or else a typed, permanent shelf card following information as given on the process slip. The typed shelf card is usually brief. It includes: author's surname typed with initials only, brief title, edition, date of publication, number of volumes, accession number (if used), copy numbers if more than one, and call number. For fiction, the binder's title may be added after the title page title to facilitate finding the book on the shelves.

When the shelf card is made, a duplicate card may be written and filed at the desk of one of the assistants. As books are completed and ready to leave the catalog department, the cards corresponding to the books are drawn from the file, stamped with the date, and filed either in the public catalog or at the circulation desk, where they remain until replaced by complete sets of cards.

The shelf-lister assigns the book number, provided the classifier has not already done so. This involves referring to the Cutter tables and then checking the shelf list to determine a number not already used. Distinctions of one kind or another may have to be made to avoid duplicating numbers. The book number is added below the class number on both the

book and the card or slip. The shelf cards are arranged by class number and held for statistics.

If the shelf-lister is an accurate person, this work need not be revised, since the very fact that the shelf list must be consulted for every entry insures little chance of error. It is economy to select a very dependable assistant for this work.

Separating books and cards.—After shelf-listing is completed, the books and cards are separated. The cards and slips are sent to the typists to be prepared for filing or to be made into copy for the duplicating machine. The books are sent to an assistant to be prepared for the shelves.

Marking and forwarding books.—The mechanical preparation of books for the shelves is ordinarily one of the duties of the catalog department. The acquisition department may share some of the duties. Pages of books must be cut when necessary. Marks of library ownership must be added through bookplates, perforation, or rubber stamps. Book pockets must be pasted in. The back of each book should be lettered with the call number and any other desirable information. The lettering may be done with white ink, an electric stylus, or book tags. Unbound material is forwarded to the bindery or is put in envelopes, manila rope bundles, pamphlet boxes, etc.

Duplicating cards.—If few cards are needed for any entry, as might be the case with cross references, the typist will make the necessary cards. If *see also* references are to be added to reference cards already in the catalog, the slips are sent to an assistant who makes the additions. Otherwise copy is prepared for the multigraph operator. This copy must be carefully proofread.

Adding headings to unit cards.—Printed and multigraphed cards go to the typist to have subject headings and added entries typed at the head of the card. The tracing on the official card is used as a guide. This tracing may be checked to show that the appropriate cards have been made. The typist may adapt or correct any printed cards that can be used without too much change. In revising cards it is important to check the call number and the filing medium carefully; other details do not need such close attention.

Filing.—The head of the catalog department may examine all cards before they are filed. After that, the cards are arranged in alphabetical order and filed in the catalogs.

III. Economical Procedures

With the cost of cataloging mounting, many libraries have had to work out methods of eliminating some of the routine and of transferring the routine work as far as possible to clerical assistants. Any economy which

will lessen the work without impairing the service is warranted in a busy library.

Clerical assistants may be trained to remove cards from the catalog; record additions to cards; check L. C. entries against those already in the catalog; do the filing; and collect material for the catalogers when the comparison of books and cards must be made. These assistants may be assigned to the various functions that consist of following rules and directions. In this way the catalogers and classifiers are freed for the professional activities that involve judgment and decision.

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Description of "continuous multiple forms" for acquisition departments.

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SMITH, E. A. "Form cards," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, V (1936), 55-62.

Demonstrates by sample cards how form cards may be used for material of an ephemeral or minor nature.

Note: See also references at end of chapters XVI and XVIII.

Some Practical Questions

1. Change the routine outlined in this chapter to apply to a smaller library where the cataloging and classification are carried by one cataloger and one typist who also acts in the capacity of a clerical assistant.
2. Change the routine, as outlined in this chapter, to apply to a library where the subject headings are assigned by the cataloger rather than by the classifier.

XIV

Added Copies. Added Editions. Continuations. Transfers. Withdrawals

I. Replacements	VI. Continuations
II. Added Copies	1. Addition of holdings to the catalog
1. Records for branch and departmental libraries	2. Series entry
2. Routine for added copies	VII. Transfers
III. Added Editions	VIII. Withdrawals
1. Distinction between added copies and added editions	1. Reasons for withdrawing books
2. New additions	2. Frequency of recording withdrawals
IV. Supplements	3. Replacement and withdrawal records
V. Indexes	4. Withdrawal routine

Much of the work of a catalog department, particularly in a school or a public library, is concerned with adding extra copies of titles already in the catalog and replacing copies of books that have been worn out or discarded. The proportion of books in these two classes to the number of new titles may be relatively high in libraries with large branch systems. In three large public libraries fifty per cent of the accessions for a five year period proved to be added copies and replacements. College and university libraries have the same situation to meet, only to a lesser degree. They acquire extra copies for reserved reading and for special and departmental libraries.

Catalog departments can apply considerable economy in the treatment of added copies and replacements. This entails working out efficient methods for routing and recording these types of books. In the operation of such methods care must be taken to detect new and changed editions that should not be added to the old records; but when a book is clearly a duplicate of one already in the collection its treatment can be mechanical. Clerical assistants can do the work accurately and well.

Books that fall into these mechanical groups may be considered under the following heads:

Replacements—The term is used to designate a title or volume which has been ordered to replace a book that was worn out or lost. Replacements may turn out to be added copies or added editions.

Added copies—Added copies are duplicates of titles that are already in the book collection and that are either cataloged or in process of cataloging.

Added editions—Added editions are new or variant editions of books already in the collection. They may be so changed in date, content, or form that it is impossible to treat them as duplicates or added copies. What is taken at first sight to be a copy may prove to be a new or different edition and must then be treated as a new book.

I. Replacements

The largest number of replacements are added copies, but frequently a book is a later edition, in which case it must either be cataloged as a new book or be added to the catalog cards for the old edition. The phrase "Do not replace" is frequently stamped on the shelf record to guard against adding titles not worth replacing.

II. Added Copies

In branch library systems the shelf list is the important place to record added copies. In addition, some libraries show on the main card in the official (or union) catalog which branches have a given title but not how many copies of that title each branch may have. This is a great convenience in interbranch work, for otherwise it might be necessary to consult the alphabetical file to obtain the call number and then check the shelf list. It is of value also in showing whether a particular branch has cards in its catalog for the book that is being added.

Some libraries maintain a detailed record of copy numbers on the shelf list card. This enables them to provide the history of any copy should that information be desired. Many libraries are content merely to record the number of copies in each location.

A common practice is to use one symbol to cover books in various extension agencies other than branches. In that case a charging system takes the place of the detailed shelf list record. This plan makes it possible for individual books and collections of books to move readily and simply from one agency to another. It would be inadequate if these agencies maintained dictionary catalogs, but such catalogs are unnecessary since the book collection in an agency is so small. Some libraries provide traveling catalog cards to accompany the books to any agency so that it can have a catalog of books on deposit.

In a college or university library, the record of added copies in special

and departmental libraries is often kept not only in the shelf list but in the official and public catalogs as well. If a departmental library does its own cataloging and has its own classification system, the record of an added copy does not usually appear in the shelf list for the central library although the information does appear in the public and official catalogs.

1. Records for branch and departmental libraries.—Dictionary catalogs are usually deposited in branch and county libraries. They are also made for departmental libraries in colleges and universities, but in special reading rooms an author catalog is commonly provided instead. Such catalogs are limited to the books in these collections except in the case of departmental libraries which may receive cards for items in their field of interest but located in the central library. These catalogs are generally compiled by making duplicate sets of the cards made for the central collection.

Each branch and departmental library usually has its own shelf list. Assistants in the branch and departmental libraries are responsible for the upkeep of these shelf lists.

2. Routine for added copies.—School and public libraries add and replace hundreds of copies of books that can be put through the catalog department without comparison with the catalog to detect changes in edition. These include works of fiction, juvenile literature, and standard editions of books for schools.

There are, however, certain kinds of books which should be carefully scanned and compared with the catalog before they are accepted as duplicates of copies already cataloged. Among these are scientific works and those whose importance depends in no small measure on their up-to-date-ness. College, university, and other reference types of library may be more strict in this respect and may catalog individually many items that in other libraries would be treated as copies. They should, however, be ready to add as copies many variant printings and impressions that are acquired as extra copies for reserved reading or for circulation purposes. In such cases they may note the variations on the official card.

When added copies are received in public libraries, assistants find it convenient to divide them into at least two groups: adult and juvenile. If the acquisition department has made a note of call numbers on ordering the extra copies, it can help by writing the numbers in the books as they come or by passing the information along on a slip. When twenty or more copies are to be added at one time, it is economical to set the call number in rubber type, revise it, and stamp it in each book. This may be done by a clerk even before the assistants are ready to record the books.

When the books are to be recorded, they should be arranged in shelf list order with all copies of the one title together. Copy numbers are assigned to the books after the shelf list has been checked. The new copy numbers

are added to the list on the shelf list card or, if no such record is maintained, the total number of copies in any location is recorded. Libraries using accession numbers may list them on the shelf list card also. If no accession number is used, much time may be saved by using a form card on which consecutive copy numbers are printed. When a new copy is received, the assistant underscores a printed number, and when a copy is withdrawn, he draws a line through the number. By using this card, the assistant may add or withdraw a copy by the stroke of a pen without removing and refiling the card. An example of such a form shelf list card follows.

817 I28r3	
Irving, Washington. Rip Van Winkle, and The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.	
1 7 <u>13</u> <u>19</u> <u>25</u>	31 37 43 49 55 61 67 73 79 85 91 97
2 8 <u>14</u> <u>20</u>	26 32 38 44 50 56 62 68 74 80 86 92 98
3 9 <u>15</u> <u>21</u>	27 33 39 45 51 57 63 69 75 81 87 93 99
<u>4</u> <u>10</u> <u>16</u> <u>22</u>	28 34 40 46 52 58 64 70 76 82 88 94 100
5 <u>11</u> <u>17</u> 23	29 35 41 47 53 59 65 71 77 83 89 95 101
<u>6</u> <u>12</u> <u>18</u> <u>24</u>	30 36 42 48 54 60 66 72 78 84 90 96 102
○	
Numbers are continued on the reverse side.	

The assistant must watch for titles that are new to any branch. If the title is the first copy to be added to any branch or other agency that has its own catalog and shelf list, a note must be made of the author, title, and call number so that catalog cards may be prepared for the branch catalog and shelf list.

The assistant will also count the number of books added in each main class. He will then pass the books on to be prepared for the shelves.

III. Added Editions

When a book ordered as a replacement turns out to be a new edition, it is usually very acceptable to the library and would have been ordered had it been known. Often it is the only edition available, others having been exhausted. If the new edition is one which replaces a copy in a branch or other agency and is not already in the central library, the catalog department should notify the department interested, e.g., the Technology department, of the new edition so that a central copy may be

ordered if desired. For this purpose a printed form may be used, such as the following:

A new edition of.....
which is not in central has been received for
.....and is held in
the catalog room for your inspection.

1. Distinction between added copies and added editions.—Some public libraries do not consider a book an added edition if it differs only slightly from other copies of the same title and therefore they enter it as an added copy. Fiction is usually so treated, but those libraries which do exceptionally careful cataloging are particular to make a distinction between editions even though the difference does not affect the content of the book. Often a book is reprinted with a new title page which bears a date later than that of other copies of the same book; in this case, the reader may ask for the book bearing the new date, especially if he has seen an announcement of the reprint. This happens more frequently with technical books, for the users of these books are not satisfied until they themselves see that the text of the book has not been changed. In cases of this kind the cataloger is forced to recognize the book as a different edition.

2. New editions.—New editions may be cataloged as new books or they may be added to cards already in the catalog for previous editions. The practice of cataloging each edition as a separate entry is probably the most satisfactory method. Subject and added entries may, however, be omitted. For each title there will, of course, be one set of subject headings and added entries in the catalog and these cards should have a statement added (by means of a rubber stamp) which will tell the reader that the record of other editions in the library can be found on the main card. This set of cards should preferably be for the best or latest edition in the library.

Usually a new edition is given the same class number as the earlier one, but it must have a distinguishing book number. Revised and enlarged editions should be examined carefully to detect additions that call for extra subject entries or analytics. The very fact that new subject headings are frequently needed makes it advantageous to catalog each edition on a separate card.

IV. Supplements

Supplements cannot always be treated as independent entries because they are so closely tied up with the work to which they relate. Those that

are not independent. Works may be considered in two separate groups, monographs and monograph supplements to periodicals. In the former case the cataloger is dealing with two items that should be cataloged and classified together. For example, *The Letters of Horace Walpole* were issued in sixteen volumes by the Clarendon Press in 1903-05. The same firm issued a three-volume *Supplement to The Letters of Horace Walpole* in 1913-25. These two items may be listed on the same card by using a "dash entry" for the supplement. The dash entry may be typed on the original catalog cards if there is room; otherwise a new set must be ordered or typed.

A supplement of the second kind should be cataloged separately. If it must be bound with the periodical with which it was issued, the cataloging will take the form of an analytic. If it is classified separately, it will have its own shelf list card, but it is desirable to add a record of it to the shelf list or other records for the periodical. An example of this type is B. E. Austin's *The History of New England Town House* which was issued as a supplement to the *Massachusetts Magazine of Historical Research*, v.12, no. 3, 1883.

V. Indexes

A dash entry is made similarly for the indexes to periodicals and other serials. If the index is not issued separately but is a part of the serial itself, the Library of Congress records the information in the form of a note. In either case the information should be added to all cards by typing or by ordering a new set. The index may be cataloged separately if the library does not have the work to which the index relates. The Library of Congress adds the word "Indexes" to the author heading for such items, as *The Classical Journal: Indexes*.

VI. Continuations

1. Addition of holdings to the catalog.—The term "continuations" is here used to include annual reports, periodicals, yearbooks, etc., and also nonserial publications that are issued in parts. The term "holdings" means the volumes or parts of a work in the possession of a library.

Libraries employ various methods for informing readers and staff members what their holdings may be. It is usually too expensive to add the information to all cards for an item. At most, the main card in the public and official catalogs is kept up to date. In that event, a statement is generally stamped on the subject and added entry cards advising the reader to consult the main card if he wants to know the library's holdings.

To add the information to a public as well as an official catalog some libraries use a "traveling card." This is an extra main card which, when not in use, is filed either in a separate catalog or in the official catalog together with the official card. When the cataloger adds new information

to the official card, he adds it to the traveling card too. The traveling card is then sent to the filers who substitute it for the public card. The public card is thereupon withdrawn to serve in turn as the traveling card. This method has a number of disadvantages and many libraries prefer a modification of it which dispenses with the extra card. According to the modified method, the cataloger changes the official card. He then turns the official card over to a clerical assistant who takes it to the public catalog and makes exactly the same changes on the public card. The official card is then refiled.

Often there is not enough room on the catalog card to add the record of holdings even though they are given in summarized form. To meet that situation many libraries attach a second card, known as a "library has" card. This is usually a printed form card on which each volume or year of a publication is checked if it is in the library. These cards are very convenient since additions may be made to them without removing them from the catalog. Two samples of "library has" cards follow.

Library has those checked				
1871	1881	1891	1901	1911
1872	1882	1892	1902	1912
1873	1883	1893	1903	1913
1874	1884	1894	1904	1914
1875	1885	1895	1905	1915
1876	1886	1896	1906	1916
1877	1887	1897	1907	1917
1878	1888	1898	1908	1918
1879	1889	1899	1909	1919
1880	1890	1900	1910	1920

FORM CARD USED FOR ANNUALS

To avoid expense, some libraries do not list their holdings in either the public or the official catalog unless the publication is no longer current and the library has a complete set. They list the earliest volume or number in the library and add an expression such as "to date" or "in progress." This shows that the work is being received as published and that the last volume or number issued is probably available.

A variation of this method is to put a statement on the cards referring the reader to a serial check list where full information may be obtained.

Library has those checked		
1	11	21
2	12	22
3	13	23
4	14	24
5	15	25
6	16	26
7	17	27
8	18	28
9	19	29
10	20	30

FORM CARD USED FOR NUMBERED PUBLICATIONS
THE DATE OF THE WORK MAY BE ADDED AFTER THE NUMBER IF DESIRED

This saves much time and money for the catalog department but may result in inconvenience and annoyance to readers unless the check list is filed as an adjunct to the catalog. In some libraries this method may be carried so far that the check list contains the only catalog record for serials.

The check list in its most convenient and practical form is a visible index. It is a detailed record of the receipt of serials and their parts and usually contains a summarized statement of the library's holdings as well. It is sometimes kept in the catalog department and sometimes in the acquisition department. It may to advantage be a joint record serving the needs of both departments.

Nonserial continuations are not numerous enough to present the problems that serials do, and as a result, they are usually added to all cards, but they too may be added only to the main cards if the subject and added entry cards are properly stamped. Sometimes the added parts or volumes are recorded in the body of the entry and sometimes they are set out in the contents statement.

"Add-to-cards" work for continuations should be allowed to accumulate until additions can be made to several sets at the same time.

2. Series entry.—Many libraries use a unit card for the series entry. Others use a series card which must be added to when new volumes in the series are received. The series card is usually typed and contains a brief entry for each volume, with a number of entries going on the one card. It is sometimes called a "combined-series-card."

If the series record is very long or involved, it may be entered in a loose-

leaf contents-book instead. Under the name of each series so entered there should be a reference in the card catalog to the contents-book.

VII. Transfers

Books are often transferred from one part of a library to another. This transferring of books is not a difficult procedure where there is centralized cataloging, but without centralized cataloging transferred books have to be cataloged afresh.

Notice comes to the catalog department of the title of the book to be transferred. A printed form is frequently used for this purpose. It gives the author and title of the book as well as the edition, date, call number, accession number, copy number, present location of the book, and the name of the new location. An assistant removes the old location marks from all catalog cards and from the shelf list and adds the new ones. If the transferred book is the last copy of that title in the branch or department where it formerly was, a notice is sent for the return of all cards unless these accompanied the book to the catalog department in the first instance. These cards are then forwarded to the branch or departmental library which is to receive the book. Any location marks in the book itself must likewise be changed.

VIII. Withdrawals

One public library added 22,937 volumes to its book collection in a year and during the same period of time withdrew 17,781 volumes leaving a net gain of only 5,156 volumes. All catalog and shelf list records connected with both the adding and the withdrawing of these books had to be handled by the catalog department. This point is emphasized here because persons unfamiliar with the internal organization of a library are often unaware of the fact that the book collection is an ever-changing aggregation and that it is the duty of the catalog department to show the ebb and flow of titles as they appear and disappear from year to year. Today the library may have fifty copies of *Alice in Wonderland*; in a month the supply of this popular title may have dwindled to twenty-five, and still the children clamor for more copies. A new shipment is ordered and the records soon show that thirty new copies are available. The life of a circulating book is often of short duration, but the records may have to be carried on.

The shelf list is the record most affected by changes made in the book collection because it must show how many copies of each title are available and how many have been in the collection since the beginning of the library. In addition to the record of each individual title, a count must be kept of volumes added and withdrawn during the year in each main class.

1. Reasons for withdrawing books.—The most common reasons for withdrawing books are: (a) worn out in use, (b) lost by the reader, (c) missing from the shelves, (d) destroyed because of exposure to contagious disease, (e) mutilated, (f) out of date or replaced by a later edition, and (g) added copies no longer needed for circulation or reference purposes.

If a library wishes to have a complete history of each copy of the books in the collection, the reason for withdrawal must be indicated on the shelf card, in the accession book, or in a separate withdrawal-book kept for this purpose. Symbols may be used to designate various reasons; for example, the letter *L* after the accession or copy number shows that the copy has been lost. Such detailed information is used so infrequently that it has been discarded by most libraries. It may, however, be advisable to mark on the shelf list the copies which have been lost and paid for by readers. The symbol *Lp* after the copy or accession number will serve as a record of payment in case of dispute. Most libraries consider it sufficient to keep a count of the number of books withdrawn without indicating reasons.

2. Frequency of recording withdrawals.—The best practice provides that the records of withdrawals be sent once a month to the catalog department. This allows better planning and insures less handling of cards since the same title may come up for discard several times during a month.

3. Replacement and withdrawal records.—There is economy in handling these records if the decision to replace the books can accompany the notice of withdrawal.

4. Withdrawal routine—

Bookcards used as records.—Great economy can be effected if records already made can be used for forwarding information in regard to withdrawals. The bookcards can easily answer this purpose. These are removed from the books by the department or agency withdrawing them, and the books themselves are not handled by the catalog department. A bookcard is made for this purpose if none is in the book.

Working from the bookcard, the agency or department pencils on it the number of copies available, information which is obtained from the shelf list. The card is then forwarded to the librarian or department head for a replacement decision. When the decision has been made, the bookcard comes to the catalog department with the following information: call number or author and title in the case of fiction, copy withdrawn, from which collection withdrawn, to be or not to be replaced.

Shelf list records.—The bookcards are arranged by call number except those for fiction which are arranged by author and title. A line is drawn through the accession or copy number on the shelf list.

Withdrawal of the last copy.—If the last copy has been withdrawn and will not be replaced, a note is made to remove all catalog cards. If the book is to be replaced, the cards remain in the catalog. As a check against

the receipt of the book, the bookcards for last copies to be replaced should be held and checked against the shelf card after one month.

Working from the notes made when last copies were withdrawn, the cataloger should cancel the catalog cards if the copy is not to be replaced. These may be held in a tray marked "withdrawn cards" and kept for future use or they may be destroyed. If the withdrawn copy is to be replaced, catalog cards are left in their places.

Statistical count.—Statistics of withdrawals may be taken from shelf cards, bookcards, or books. It is economical, however, to take them from the bookcards in order to avoid taking out the shelf cards and refileing them. The number of bookcards in each class gives the number of withdrawals in that class. These numbers are then deducted from the total additions by class in order to get the net gain or loss of books. The same plan is followed if shelf cards are used for statistical purposes.

Corrections on catalog cards.—If part of a set only is withdrawn or missing, this fact must be recorded on the catalog cards. Such a note might read: *v.4 missing*.

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These reports are valuable in calling attention to new methods, new devices, and new and better practices in catalog departments in various libraries.

Some Practical Questions

1. What catalog and shelf-list records are necessary for taking care of the book collection of a branch library?
2. Should the catalog show the exact holdings for the continuations in a library?
3. Why is it important to keep accurate statistics of withdrawn books?
4. What are the advantages of a visible index for checking current serials?

XV

Library of Congress Cards Wilson Cards

- | | |
|--|---|
| I. Catalog Card Service of the Library of Congress | 4. Preparing printed cards for the catalog |
| 1. Scope of the card stock | 5. Use of L. C. cards for other records |
| 2. Services of the Card Division | |
| II. The Use of Library of Congress Cards | III. Depository Catalogs |
| 1. Administrative questions | IV. The Printed L. C. Catalog in Book Form |
| 2. Methods of ordering L. C. cards | V. Proofsheets |
| 3. Checking the receipt of L. C. cards | VI. Wilson Cards for School and Popular Libraries |

I. Catalog Card Service of the Library of Congress

Dr. Putnam, the former Librarian of Congress, described the scope and work of the National Library as follows:

Fundamentally, the Library is all that its name implies. It is the library of Congress. It was established by Congress; it exists for the purposes of Congress. In practice, however, through a development which began with the present century, it serves, not merely the entire governmental establishment, but the whole public as well. It is, in effect, our national library. It aids investigators the country over through a system of interlibrary loans based upon the simple principle of "the unusual book for the unusual need." It acts also as a bureau of information in all matters involving the serious use of books. Its publications, widely distributed, include bibliographical lists, catalogs and printed texts. Librarianship generally—and therefore scholarship generally—has also the benefit of its experience and its processes in the classifying and cataloging of printed materials and in bibliographic and reference work. More than six thousand libraries in the United States subscribe to its service of printed cards, of which it carries a stock of over a hundred million; their use of this service has gone far in making the Library a central cataloging bureau for libraries from coast to coast and even in foreign lands.¹

The Library of Congress started printing cards for its own use in 1898. In 1901 it began to sell copies of the printed cards to other libraries. Forty

¹ U.S. Library of Congress. *Annual report of the librarian of Congress, 1938* (Washington: Govt. print. off., 1939), p.464.

years later, the sales of cards to other libraries amounted to more than a third of a million dollars annually.

1. **Scope of the card stock.**—The Library of Congress has been the legal depository for copyright books since 1871. The card stock is accordingly strong for copyright material although cards have not been printed for all copyright books and certainly not for a great many copyright pamphlets. Cards are also available for books received under international copyright, for many other foreign publications and for many noncopyright items printed or published in this country.

The stock of cards is composed primarily of entries prepared by the Library of Congress for use in its own catalogs. It is constantly augmented by cards printed by the Library of Congress from copy supplied by other libraries throughout the country, including various federal libraries in the District of Columbia, as they catalog and analyze their current accessions. Entries supplied in this way cover the following classes of material:

1. Popular noncopyright books in English which the Library of Congress does not wish to acquire
2. Highly specialized books along lines which the Library of Congress does not attempt to cover exhaustively
3. Foreign publications
4. Out-of-print publications which it is desired to have represented in the stock
5. Analytics for many monograph series

The Card Division of the Library of Congress is the sales and distribution agency for the printed catalog cards. It publishes a *Handbook of card distribution* which gives full information regarding the price of the cards and the manner of ordering them. The student should possess a copy of the latest edition of the *Handbook*.

2. **Services of the Card Division.**—In addition to selling and distributing cards, the Card Division offers the following services to libraries:

1. Photostat copies of catalog entries in the Union Catalog will be made on request.
2. Library of Congress catalogs will be checked for special cataloging or bibliographical information.
3. Class marks and subject headings will be supplied when they have been omitted from the printed L. C. card.
4. Sets of model cards to illustrate cataloging rules can be supplied.
5. Depository sets of Library of Congress cards are made available to approved libraries.
6. Compiles and sells a card index to anonymous works whose authorship has been discovered.

The fees for these services can be found in the *Handbook of card distribution*.

II. The Use of Library of Congress Cards

1. Administrative questions.—Before a local library decides to use Library of Congress cards, it must consider the relationship of its own policies to those of the Library of Congress regarding the form of headings, card forms, and the number and kinds of reference books available. The elements which will most influence a library in the acceptance or nonacceptance of L. C. cards are in general of an administrative rather than a technical nature.

Library administrators are always interested in methods which will reduce costs, release professional workers from mechanical drudgery, and give better service to those who come to their libraries. These ends can be attained only to the degree to which assistants in a library share in the improvement of methods and to which they are willing to acquire the necessary skill to provide the excellence of service sought by the library.

If the work formerly carried in catalog departments by professional assistants can be reduced by using the product from a central bureau (where the quality is as high or is even higher), there is certain to be a gain to the library in both time and money. Again, if much of the sorting, duplicating, and handling of cards can be cared for by clerical assistants, the same advantages to the staff and to the library are apparent. Labor turnover should be less of a problem in catalog departments where printed cards are in use, since the professional assistants are relieved of much routine. Library of Congress cards can help to accomplish such ends in catalog departments.

2. Methods of ordering L. C. cards.—Details of ordering L. C. cards are set out in the *Handbook of card distribution*. The methods adopted will be conditioned by the organization of each library concerned. The determining factors are:

1. The methods used by a library in ordering books
2. The cost element in reordering cards if more are needed than were first ordered
3. The time involved in holding books for cards
4. The kind of cataloging a library is doing

Economy of time and effort come from ordering cards at the same time the books are ordered. In some libraries the acquisition department makes a carbon copy of its orders and this is sent to the Library of Congress. In others the order records are copied on slips by either the acquisition or the catalog department.

The employment of such methods means that the cards are ordered before the catalogers see the books. Hence they cannot tell how many cards will be needed per title. If they order by formula, fewer or more cards than are wanted may be supplied. There are other complications,

for some books may be ordered but never received, while in other cases the books received may not be exactly the same as those ordered. On the other hand, if the cards are not ordered until the books are in the catalog department, there will be a delay of a week or more before any cards come. In that event, libraries are confronted with the alternatives of withholding books from circulation until the cards arrive or making temporary catalog records.

To some libraries the advantage of having the cards when the books are received is of greater importance than saving a few cents on the ordering of extra cards. Accordingly, they order the books and cards at the same time. Others prefer the slower and surer method of ordering the correct number of cards for the edition actually received.

Another question to determine is whether to order the cards by author and title or by card number. The former will be preferred if order records are duplicated for the Library of Congress; the latter will be preferred if the library has an L. C. depository set or checks other sources for the card numbers. A combination of these two methods is often followed, with author and title orders being placed when the card numbers are not readily available. Card numbers may be obtained from a variety of sources: from the printed L. C. catalog in book form; from Library of Congress publications, depository catalogs, and proofsheets; from A.L.A. publications, such as the *Booklist* and the *A.L.A. catalog*; and from H. W. Wilson publications, such as the *Cumulative book index*, the *United States catalog*, and the *Book review digest*.

When a library expects to obtain all the publications constituting a monograph series, it is economical to place a standing order with the Card Division of the Library of Congress so that cards for each item will be sent to the library automatically as soon as they are printed. An administrative decision must be made as to which monograph series are worth analyzing.

3. Checking the receipt of L. C. cards.—Each package of cards received contains a memorandum of the number and price of the cards. Once a month the Library of Congress sends a statement that gives the cost. Order slips and lists are returned with the cards or with a statement that cards will be supplied later or that cards will be unavailable. The cards need to be checked with the orders to see that they correspond. Unfilled orders must be placed in a separate file to await the receipt of the cards. If no cards can be supplied for a title, it must be cataloged locally. It does not pay for libraries to check invoices, other than to inspect them for obvious errors.

Since 1939 there has been a notable improvement in the card service. The establishment of a branch of the Government Printing Office in the Library of Congress Annex has done much to eliminate delay in filling

orders. The Library of Congress has also done much to encourage publishers to deposit copyright books in advance of publication so that catalog cards may be printed promptly.

Any error in a shipment may be returned to the Card Division. The original order should be returned with the cards, together with a note about the error and the "order check slip." A list of such returned orders is convenient as a follow-up record.

The analytics for monograph series need special checking both to record the receipt of the cards and to make sure that the items to which they relate have been received. It is convenient and economical, therefore, to maintain the record of L. C. standing orders on the visible index or other serial check list. If black ink is used to record the receipt of serials, a red check in the same square can show the receipt of the cards for each item. Sometimes the cards come ahead of the publications, in which case they must be held for the books to arrive; they may also provide the occasion for asking an agent or publisher why the books have not been received.

4. Preparing printed cards for the catalog.—We shall proceed with the unit cards that match the books exactly, leaving changes on cards to be dealt with in the next chapter.

Main card.—When a library maintains an official or union catalog, the author card filed in that catalog generally becomes the main card. The tracing, which may or may not coincide with that used by the Library of Congress, is recorded on this card together with the location of various copies of the book in branches and elsewhere if that is considered desirable. When a library has no official or union catalog, the author card in the public catalog becomes the main card. Reference cards for authors' names must generally be made by the individual library after the cards have been received. Authority cards may have to be made at the same time.

Author card.—The author card in the public catalog, unless it is the main card, needs the addition of the call number only.

Subject cards.—The subject heading must be added at the top of each subject card called for in the tracing. Some libraries type the subject headings in red to distinguish these cards from added entries. Other libraries, including the Library of Congress, prefer black because it is more durable. If black ink is used, the subject headings are usually typed in block capitals to distinguish them from the added entries which are typed with small letters. Some libraries use red edges on subject cards.

Added entry cards.—As with subject cards, the heading has to be typed at the top of all added entry cards called for in the tracing. Many libraries with an official catalog put the added entries in both the public and official catalogs.

Analytic cards.—Almost any L. C. card can be adapted for an analytical entry. Those which list contents are the most convenient to use. The

heading for the analytic must be typed on the card. The corresponding item in the body of the card is then underscored and a diagonal line is drawn between it and the heading.

If the analytic is for a bibliographical entity (that is, an item with its own title page, commonly part of a monograph series), it is treated as a regular unit card. The call number will be for the set if the work is kept together on the shelves; if the work is shelved according to the subject of each monograph or part analyzed, then the call number will be for the separate. It is not uncommon to have two call numbers for such items, one for the kept-together set and the other for the scattered items.

The following L. C. card is an example of an analytic for a monograph series:

U. S. <i>Treaties, etc., 1933-</i>		(Franklin D. Roosevelt)	
... Naval mission. Agreement between the United States of America and Ecuador. Signed December 12, 1940. Effective December 12, 1940. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1941.			
1 p. l., 9 p. 23 ^{cm} . (i) Dept. of state. Publication 1553, Executive agreement series, no. 188)			
English and Spanish in parallel columns.			
1. U. S. Naval mission to Ecuador. 2. Ecuador—Navy. 3. U. S.—Navy. i. Ecuador. Treaties, etc., 1939— (Arroya del Rio) ii. U. S. Dept. of state. (Publication, no. 1553; iii. U. S. Dept. of state. Executive agreement series, no. 188. iv. Title.			
Library of Congress		VA431.U6 1940	41-50212
— Copy 2.		JX236 1929 no.188	
		61	(341.273) 359.0986

This particular publication belongs to a double series. It is number 1553 of the "Publications" of the Department of State as well as number 188 of the "Executive agreement series" of the Department of State. In this case, the Library of Congress has called for added entries under the name of each series, but this is not its general practice. Instead of using unit cards for the series entry, the Library of Congress makes typed combined-series-cards.

The classification shows that in this instance the Library of Congress scatters the "Publications" by subject but keeps the subseries, the "Executive Agreement Series," together. It also keeps duplicate copies of the subseries by subject. The call number JX236 1929 no.188 stands for the subseries which is kept together, as does the Dewey number 341.273. The L. C. call number VA431.U6 1940 and the Dewey number 359.0986 stand for the separate classified by subject.

The Card Division of the Library of Congress publishes lists of monograph series for which analyticals are available.

Combined-series-cards.—The Library of Congress does not generally print combined-series-cards but like many other libraries continues to use the common form of manuscript card. On this card the series is the important entry. The author, title, date, and call number of each book in the series are entered on this card.

Childhood and youth series.

372.4 Cook, W. A. The child and his spelling. c1914;
C77

174.7 Healy, William. Honesty. c1915;
H43

370.15 Swift, E. J. Learning and doing. c1914;
S97



Printed authority cards.—The Library of Congress prints the authority cards for the more important societies and institutions. At times it is useful for libraries to obtain and use such cards in both public and official catalogs as information cards. Examples of these authority cards are found in Pierson's *Guide to the cataloguing of the serial publications of societies and institutions*.

Reference cards.—Since January, 1941, the Library of Congress has been printing all of its cross references where formerly only selected ones were printed. The newer references contain a statement cautioning users that the reference may not relate to a main entry. Reference cards are difficult to order unless a depository catalog is available for consultation. They are not traced on any printed card because they do not necessarily belong to any specific book, nor are they supplied when a full set of cards is ordered for any title. Because of this difficulty of ordering, libraries usually make their own reference cards.

5. Use of L. C. cards for other records—

Shelf list.—A printed card can be used as the shelf card for the main library and its branches by adding the call number to the card and filing

it by this number. Copy numbers, and any other items which the library finds necessary, can be added to the card. Should there be insufficient space on the L. C. card for such additions, a manuscript card can be tied or otherwise attached to it. Made with L. C. cards the shelf list becomes a very usable and valuable classed catalog. The use of printed cards also makes it easy for branch and departmental libraries to have their own shelf list in addition to the union shelf list. They are then equipped with both a dictionary and a classed catalog. The author cards in the dictionary catalog can then be looked on as the author index to the classed catalog.

Foreign language lists.—One card for each book in a foreign language can be put in a separate file to show what books a library has in that language. These cards can be arranged first by language, second by broad subject, and third by author.

Special collections.—It is often valuable to have an author catalog of a special collection. Unit cards can be used to make such catalogs.

Card lists supplementary to printed lists.—If a library has printed a catalog or bibliography and wishes to maintain a supplementary list so that a new edition can be printed later, L. C. cards can well be used for the supplement. The copy will then be ready when the time comes to prepare the new edition.

Special bibliographies.—Author or subject bibliographies can easily be kept up by means of L. C. cards. The Card Division of the Library of Congress can supply a special set of cards for reference books.

Serial publications.—A check list of serial publications can be made up, at least in part, of L. C. cards. Such a list is very useful since the cards contain full notes.

List of subject headings.—A list of subject headings used in a dictionary catalog could be compiled largely by using one card for each new heading as it comes into use. Such a list would have at least one illustration of the use of a given heading.

Other separate files.—The following files show some of the other possible uses of L. C. cards:

1. A separate list of fiction or any other literary form
2. A biography list, arranged by the biographee
3. A list of rare books, arranged by date, printer, or place
4. A list of local material
5. Lists of books for schools, stations, hospitals, or other agencies
6. Lists of juvenile books
7. Lists of books in the open-shelf room
8. Lists of books in departmental libraries

Use by individuals.—The value to libraries of L. C. printed cards is obvious, but they have practical value for individuals and for other insti-

tutions as well. A specialist in any line can buy from the Card Division a card bibliography on his special subject. Such a bibliography would be limited to books and analyticals listed in the card stock, but often these entries would mount up to hundreds or thousands of cards. This is a quick way to gather the foundations of a bibliography which otherwise might take months to compile. Supplementary cards can be obtained as they are printed or the proofsheets can be bought for the broad subject-field in which the individual is interested. Bibliographers, booksellers, clubs, museums, publishers, scholars, and others would find these card bibliographies very valuable.

III. Depository Catalogs

Since it began to distribute cards, the Library of Congress has deposited one copy of each printed card in the principal centers of research in this country. Collections of these cards are known as "depository sets." Their purpose is to make known to scholars and research workers the contents of the National Library at Washington. This is one way in which the Library of Congress furthers the progress of bibliography, research, and scholarship.

Depository catalogs facilitate reference work and interlibrary loans. To the cataloger they afford a primary source for obtaining full names and dates; they help in identifying editions; and they provide card numbers for ordering the printed cards.

The upkeep of these catalogs is considerable. Filing the cards, guiding and storing them are not a small item. Only the larger libraries can afford depository catalogs although the cards are provided free. Some libraries which could not obtain depository sets have considered them so valuable that they have created one for themselves out of proofsheets entries.

IV. The Printed L. C. Catalog in Book Form

The benefits that larger libraries have enjoyed from depository catalogs are now being extended to other libraries through the printed Library of Congress catalog in book form.² This catalog has been created by photographing the printed cards and reproducing them eighteen to a page. The proofsheets or the depository cards serve as a supplement to the book catalog until they are replaced by supplements in book form. The main catalog contains entries for which cards had been printed through July 1942.

V. Proofsheets

The whole set of proofsheets for Library of Congress cards may be obtained for \$30 a year, plus an additional \$12 if they are to be punched

² *A catalog of books represented by Library of Congress printed cards issued to July 31, 1942* (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, 1943-), v.1-.

and cut to card size. The proofsheets may be obtained for broad classes for \$3 a year. They are becoming increasingly valuable for bibliographical purposes and as a supplement to the printed catalog in book form.

VI. Wilson Cards for School and Popular Libraries

Small public and school libraries have not used L. C. cards to any great extent. For one reason, they needed more prompt service than the Library of Congress was able to give. They are now obtaining very satisfactory cards from the H. W. Wilson Company.

The cataloging on the Wilson cards is simpler than that done by the Library of Congress. One popular feature is the extensive use of annotations (instead of the formal descriptive notes preferred by the Library of Congress) and contents. Subject headings conform to the Sears list. Dewey numbers follow the policies employed in the "Standard Catalogs."

The cards are issued in sets. They may be bought as unit cards to be prepared for use in the way L. C. cards are, or they may be bought with the class marks, subject headings, and added entries already printed at the top of the cards. In the latter case, the cards are virtually ready to file.

There are four methods of paying for the Wilson cards. (1) Sheets of twenty five-cent coupons may be purchased in advance so that the requisite number of coupons may be enclosed with each card order. This plan eliminates any need for bookkeeping on both sides. (2) Where coupons cannot be purchased in advance, cards may be ordered without prepayment. A memorandum bill accompanies each lot of cards, and invoices are rendered quarterly. (3) A blanket subscription plan enables libraries to receive sets of all cards printed each week. (4) Libraries may buy on the consignment plan. They receive sets of all cards printed and twice a year report the number of unused sets. A bill is then sent for the number of sets that have been used.

The first two of these plans are suitable to the small library. The last two are advantageous for libraries that use at least three-quarters of the cards printed.

Complete check lists of titles for which cards have been printed are available. Current monthly lists are sent to all users of the service. These lists also tell which items have been analyzed, how many cards are issued for the analytics, and the price for such sets.

References

References for this chapter are at the end of Chapter XVI.

Some Practical Questions

1. Explain just how the Library of Congress meets the requirements for centralized and cooperative cataloging mentioned in this chapter.

2. What use could publishers make of Library of Congress printed cards?
3. What economies are realized by using unit cards?
4. Suggest some new phase of centralized cataloging which might prove helpful to libraries.
5. What, in your estimation, are the three best points about Library of Congress cards?
6. Suggest what you would consider the best method of ordering cards for branches if branch books were received after the copy for the central library had been cataloged.
7. Do you think Library of Congress cards could be prepared for the catalog by a person untrained in cataloging?
8. Explain the use of the L. C. unit card in making analytical entries.
9. Give directions for a typist who is to prepare unit cards for the catalog.
10. Analyze the features on Wilson cards that make them suited to the work of school and public libraries.

XVI

Adapting L. C. Cards Duplicating Processes Microfilm

I. Changes on Library of Congress Cards

1. Author entry
2. Title
3. Edition
4. Imprint
5. Collation
6. Notes
7. Changes in the tracing

II. The Local Unit Card

1. Specifications and simplifications
2. An abbreviated card

III. Duplicating Processes

1. Typed unit cards
2. Mimeographed and multi-graphed unit cards
3. L. C. versus multigraphed cards

IV. Microfilm

I. Changes on Library of Congress Cards

Library of Congress cards must be changed when it is necessary to adapt them to local needs because they do not fit the books exactly or because they must be made to conform to local usage. Judgment should be exercised in making changes and a careful comparison of books and cards should always be made. It is better to make too many corrections than to err on the side of making too few. If the variance between book and card is so marked as to require a different entry, or the rearrangement of the items on the card, the printed cards should be discarded and new ones typed.

Additions should always be made on the typewriter; ink will spread and become blurred if the glazed surface of the paper has been removed. Corrections should be made in a note rather than by writing between the lines of print. Clearness should not be sacrificed for order of items.

1. **Author entry.**—Catalogers need to consider the relative value of Library of Congress author entries as against those already in use in the local library. If the latter has many cards under a form of name different from that used by the Library of Congress, it is sensible to change the entry on the printed card to the form already in use. All things being equal, it is wiser to accept the Library of Congress form. If that is not

accepted, the cataloger must be prepared to deal with the problem of correcting the form of the name every time it occurs in cataloging.

Popular libraries may avoid much of this difficulty by not using L. C. cards for fiction. They should also avoid buying L. C. cards for entries they prefer to make under the English form of a name in preference to the Latin or vernacular form.

If the local library has not used the author's name with the same fulness as the Library of Congress, the cards may be used by bracketing or lining out that part of the name not used. It does not pay to use L. C. cards if much change has to be made in the author entry. In the case of variations, a cross reference should commonly be made from the L. C. form of name to that used by the local library.

There is much to be said for accepting corporate names as they appear on L. C. cards unless a different form has already been used. Such names are often difficult and expensive to establish. Entries for government documents may present some problems because rules for cataloging them have undergone many changes. For document headings the Library of Congress has adopted the direct entry without inversion. If the local library has used the inverted form of the name, as *U.S. Education, Bureau of*, the Library of Congress entries may be filed with these without changing the printed card. Underscore the significant secondary word and file by that rather than by the first word of the subdivision, as:

U.S. Census, Bureau of the
 U.S. Bureau of the census
 U.S. Documents, Superintendent of
 U.S. Superintendent of documents
 U.S. Education, Bureau of
 U.S. Bureau of education

If the headings do not lend themselves to underscoring, the entry must be changed.

2. Title.—Changes in the title may be indicated if the correction is slight, but it is often better to type new cards than to risk a misunderstanding.

3. Edition.—A library that is ordering cards frequently states on its subscriber's card just what variations in edition it will accept. Most libraries are prepared to make certain changes or to use cards which may vary slightly. The statement of the edition can be easily changed if the printed card gives it in figures, or it may be added in a note if it has been omitted from the card. The cataloger should scrutinize the date of publication and the number of pages as well as the edition; in fact he should check the whole L. C. card with the book so that he can correct any variation in the edition.

4. **Imprint.**—The circulating books which come and go in a popular library need not be cataloged in great detail; therefore it is not always necessary to check details of imprint on the L. C. cards. If the L. C. card gives a publisher and place different from those in the book, the reader will, nine times out of ten, never be inconvenienced by the variation.

University and reference libraries will, of course, make changes, because they need an exact transcript of the title page of the edition cataloged. In the case of books published simultaneously in England and America, the card needs no change when the Library of Congress gives both imprints. It is convenient for the user of the catalog to know that an English book may be secured in America; therefore, when only the English copy has been cataloged by the Library of Congress, it may be useful for some libraries to add the American imprint to the card. For example, the H. W. Wilson Company adds its imprint to English books published by Grafton. Library of Congress cards may note Grafton only, but the cataloger may add H. W. Wilson Company, New York. The date of publication should always correspond to that of the book being cataloged, except in the case of fiction where the date is relatively unimportant since the text of works of fiction is rarely changed.

5. **Collation.**—Changes in the collation must be indicated when full and complete cataloging is the rule of the library, but small libraries and even many large public libraries make no changes except in the number of volumes. This number must always correspond to the books being cataloged. The series note should be changed when it is different from the one in the book.

6. **Notes.**—Notes may always be added to L. C. cards. If there is no space on the printed card, a second, typed card may be used. Notes on chapters to be analyzed, contents, and valuable supplementary matter needed for a special purpose are frequently useful and should be recorded on the cards.

7. **Changes in the tracing.**—If the local library adopts a form of subject heading different from that printed on the L. C. card, the changed heading may be traced on the back of the card and a line drawn through the tracing on the face of the card. Tracings need to be noted only on the official or main card, not on added entry cards.

II. The Local Unit Card

While catalog cards for a very large number of titles may be purchased from the Library of Congress, there will always be some cataloging for the local library to do. Fiction and juvenile literature are two classes which in the popular and school library may well be cataloged locally, instead of attempting to use Library of Congress cards for them if Wilson cards are not available. These items and others for which the Library of Con-

gress cannot furnish printed cards, or cannot supply them in time, must be cataloged as economically as possible.

Since the Library of Congress has set the standards for cataloging and is supplying cards for so many books, it is natural that the cataloging in the local library should conform in essentials to its practice. The cards made by the local library to supplement L. C. cards, which we shall call, for want of a better term, *local unit cards*, should conform in size and thickness to the L. C. stock, and the same style and form of main entry should be adopted whenever feasible. It has already been demonstrated that the unit card is the most economical and most satisfactory form to use, and there is no reason why it cannot be made in the local library and serve the same purpose as does the card printed by the Library of Congress.

Local unit cards can be just as full or as brief as is deemed necessary. By analyzing its needs and eliminating all nonessentials, the local library can simplify the card considerably. Those libraries which print their own cards and supply copies to other institutions will naturally want to print a catalog card as full as the L. C. card and uniform with it in every particular, *but there is no reason why other libraries cannot have a simplified local unit card*. The average local library cannot afford to spend the same amount of time on bibliographical research as catalogers devote to it at the National Library, nor is such meticulous work necessary. It is practicable to use catalog cards which are full and bibliographically minute when the information has been ferreted out at a central bureau where every tool is available; but to proceed similarly in the local library, where the staff is small and the usual demands are for less detailed information, is to add unnecessary cost to cataloging and useless details to the catalog cards. Uniformity in headings must be maintained throughout the catalog, but uniformity in bibliographical details may vary when good judgment dictates that such precision is not required.

Each library will probably have a different opinion as to the importance of the imprint and the collation, but surely the day is near when uniformity even in these items will be possible on local unit cards. When this comes, another step towards cooperation will have been realized. Then libraries may exchange cards for books in foreign languages and for other types of cataloging where L. C. cards are not available.

1. Specifications and simplifications.—The following specifications have been made to cover the main points in cataloging books for the average public library in which there is no great demand for exhaustive reference work. This outline may provide a working basis for the library science student and insure uniformity in class work. We shall also see how cards may be simplified.

In making these suggestions, we are not thinking of dictating policies

for any library or group of libraries. Students will of course realize that when they take up actual work in a library, they may find a card in use which is very different in fulness and even form ~~from~~ the one suggested here. It is probably more profitable for the student to be familiar with this simple unit-card form of cataloging after, rather than before, he has actually cataloged books with Library of Congress cards.

The changes from L. C. usage here recommended are as follows:

Rules for entry.—Follow the A.L.A. *Catalog rules* or Akers' *Simple library cataloging*.

Author fulness.—Use the full name when it can be found easily, but omit dates after the author's name except to distinguish two people of the same name or to conform to entries already in the catalog.

Title.—Omit the author statement from the title except when the surname differs from that used in the author heading. Transcribe the title with sufficient fulness to express both the subject and the intent of the author, but abbreviate it where possible.

Imprint.—Use only one place of publication, publisher and date. Prefer an American imprint. Names of places and publishers may be abbreviated.

Collation.—Give the main paging or else the number of volumes if there are more than one. Specify maps in history and travel books, and portraits in biographies. Use *illus.* for all other types of illustrations. Give the series note for important series only.

Contents and notes.—The contents statement should be included for addresses, essays, plays, short stories, etc., and for other books when it will be useful and can be effectively given. Use notes that add to a reader's information about a book but avoid notes concerning the physical make-up of a book as far as possible.

Tracing.—Give the tracing on the back of the main card only, and without numbering.

Style.—Follow the rules for capitalization and punctuation and the list of abbreviations given in the A.L.A. *Catalog rules*.

Library of Congress practice may be followed for the form of the card, the spacing, and the order of the items. The call number should go in the upper left-hand corner as on L. C. cards.

2. An abbreviated card.—When each card is typed, rather than duplicated by some other mechanical means, the full form need not be used for added entry cards. After the main card has been made, directions may be given to the typist to copy only certain parts of it for the added entries. Thus, a title entry might be simplified to "Gone with the wind, by Margaret Mitchell," instead of using all the details that go on a unit card.

150

T61

Titchener, Edward Bradford.

An outline of psychology. New ed.

N.Y., Macmillan, 1902

illus.

"Books and articles recommended for
further reading": p. 377-379.



MODEL OF A LOCAL UNIT CARD

Such abbreviated forms are used chiefly in the cataloging of fiction. The student should study Akers' *Simple library cataloging* to become familiar with various possible forms of cards.

III. Duplicating Processes

After the cataloger has prepared copy for the local unit card, this is duplicated as many times as necessary to make complete sets of cards for one or more catalogs. These unit cards are then used in exactly the same way as L. C. printed cards.

The manifolding or duplicating of cards may be done by various methods. The processes most commonly used in American libraries are described here, but no really satisfactory means of reproducing cards for library purposes has yet been produced. Catalogers are ever on the alert to see what new and better machines may come on the market. Mr. Martel, speaking for the Library of Congress, emphasized this need in 1926 when he said:

The most wanted labor-saving device in the business of making catalogs has not yet been found—it is a relatively cheap process of photographic or other faithful reproduction of the printed catalog card—typographical reprinting is unreliable and comparatively expensive. When we have that process, one of our most serious problems will have been solved.¹

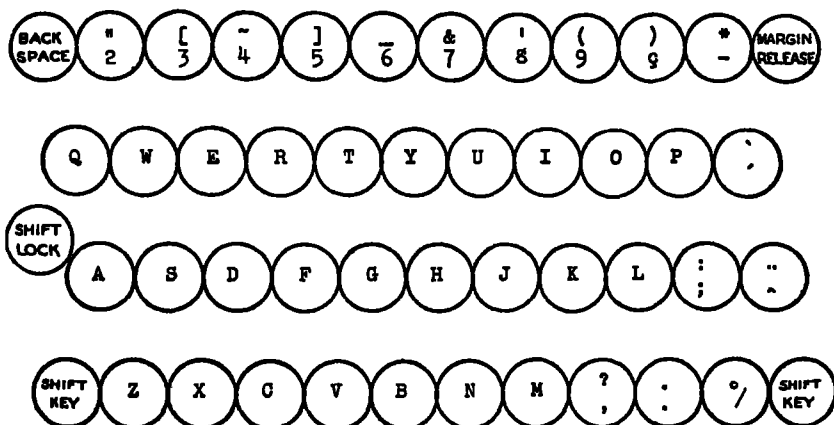
The choice of methods is in no small measure conditioned by the num-

¹ Charles Martel, "Cataloging: 1876-1926," *Library Journal*, LI (December 1926), 1069.

ber of cards required per title. If a library averages six or fewer cards per set, the typewriter is the most economical means of reproducing cards. If the average runs higher, then a mimeograph, multigraph, or some similar machine is desirable.

1. **Typed unit cards.**—Stiff catalog cards cannot be manifolded on the typewriter. The cards must be typed one at a time, but an expert operator can turn off the cards in half the time or less that it would take a cataloger. Tests show that, using trained typists, and including the cost of the card stock, typed cards cost approximately two cents each.

The various standard typewriters available on the market are all satisfactory for card work. They should be equipped with a card platen and with a special library keyboard that gives accents, square brackets, etc., in place of fractions and other characters not much used in cataloging. Either pica or elite type may be used according to preference. If the former is preferred, it is desirable to have at least one elite machine for the additions and corrections to be made on printed cards.



SPECIMENS OF CHARACTERS FOR A LIBRARY KEYBOARD

If libraries have much cataloging to do in the Cyrillic or Hebrew alphabets, it is desirable to have special typewriters fitted with these characters. Catalog departments that have a fair amount of work in non-roman alphabets find it advantageous to have a Vari-typewriter. This machine was formerly the Hammond typewriter. It operates by means of shuttles which carry the particular type face to be used. Several hundred different shuttles are available. As with other typewriters, the Vari-typewriter can be employed to make copy for the mimeograph.

2. **Mimeographed and multigraphed unit cards.**—Many libraries use the mimeograph to reproduce their cards simply and economically. The

Dick mimeograph has been specially adapted to library use. Others prefer the multigraph and the Set-o-type since these operate with printer's ink. The multilith produces particularly good cards, provided a library can afford the purchase price of the equipment.

These machines may be used to add call numbers and subject headings to printed and other cards when there is a sufficient quantity of such work to be done. Bookcards and pockets may be prepared with the same type used for the catalog cards. The fact that the machines may be used for general library purposes as well (e.g., for form letters, notices, booklists, etc.) means that the cost of the equipment and its operation may be shared with other parts of a library.

The following routine, which is followed in one library, will serve to show how such machines play their part in the work of a catalog department:

1. Multigraphing in full—

- a. Copy is typed on the reverse of spoiled stock and the number of cards wanted is indicated. Multigraph copy is not used as an official card. It is apt to be soiled by the multigrapher and it costs next to nothing to run one more card for this purpose.
- b. If subjects and other headings are to be multigraphed, an attached form, filled out with all information needed by the multigrapher, is clipped to the copy.
- c. Full entry is set up.
- d. First card is proof read.
- e. All cards are run.
- f. Subjects and other headings are added one at a time to the unit card.
- g. Type for headings is shifted and held for the tracing.
- h. Type is rearranged and tracings are run.
- i. One extra catalog card is run and held as copy in case more cards should be needed at a later date. This is better than saving the original copy because it is possible to set up more quickly from multigraphed copy already spaced than from typed copy. The extra card is run only for titles where future duplication is probable.

2. Preparing L. C. cards for use—

- a. When L. C. cards are received, the call number is set up and run if there are ten cards or more; if fewer cards are involved, the call numbers are typed.
- b. If subject and other headings are to be added, the procedure is the same as in *b., f.-h.* above. (Many libraries prefer to type the subject headings in all cases.)

3. Shelf cards and bookcards—

- a. Copy for the shelf card is furnished by the shelf-lister from the first (main) copy. It is not left to the multigraphers to determine the form of shelf card and bookcard entry from the catalog card copy. They are not always identical. For instance, shelf cards and bookcards for pseudonymous fic-

tion may be under the pseudonym while the catalog cards are under the real name.

When L. C. cards have been ordered, no attempt is made to connect the multigraphing of the shelf cards and bookcards with the preparation of the L. C. cards. The books go forward without waiting for the arrival of the L. C. cards.

- b. Shelf card, bookcard if multigraphed, and catalog card if ready, are put into each book.
 - c. The accession number is then typed on the shelf card. Branches type accession numbers on their own bookcards. Shelf cards are arranged conveniently for the reviser.
 - d. Shelf-listing is revised.
4. Call number and accession number are *written* on pockets, the branches doing their own.

The Dexigraph and the photostat have both been used for the reproduction of cards. They have proved most serviceable when one long, continuous job had to be done, such as the creation of a new catalog by copying part or all of an old one.

3. **L. C. versus multigraphed cards.**—Cleveland Public Library made a careful study to determine when L. C. cards should be ordered and when cards should be multigraphed locally. The cost of ordering, receiving, and preparing the L. C. cards was taken into account as well as their price. It was found that the cost was about the same when eleven cards were needed per title. Above that number L. C. cards were more expensive; below eleven, multigraphed cards cost more. For four cards or less, typing was preferred.

It was also observed that few orders for L. C. cards involved twelve to twenty cards per set. Hence it was decided that it was economical to order L. C. cards if from five to twenty cards were needed. Above twenty, it was more economical to multigraph. However, if the L. C. cards gave full contents they might be preferred even though more than twenty were needed.

Like many other libraries, Cleveland multigraphs a short unit card for analytics, even if L. C. cards have been used for the main entry.

IV. Microfilm

Microphotography has been used to copy various library records, such as card catalogs and shelf lists; it has been used to help in the making of a union catalog. But as K. D. Metcalf said:

Microphotography is not . . . going to change our bibliographical methods; it is not a satisfactory process to use in copying single pages or in making short runs; it is not practicable for anything but small editions. On the other hand, for long runs and small editions it is immensely cheaper than anything else so far discovered, and can and should be used for bibliographical purposes in connection

with the reproduction of books, pamphlets, and bibliographies and catalogues in card form.²

This is the extent to which microfilm seems destined to touch cataloging records and methods, so that catalogers are much more concerned over the cataloging of the films that libraries are acquiring in increasing numbers. The cataloging of these films is very little different from what the cataloging of the originals would be. The principal difference is in the use of a number of specialized notes. One library records the following items in notes:

1. The number of reels, if more than one
2. The size of the film in millimeters
3. The position of the text on the film, according to the following scheme:
 Position I, one page in each frame, with the text running across the film
 Position II, text parallel to the film
 Position III, two pages in each frame, with the text running across the film
4. A statement as to whether the film is a positive or a negative
5. The location of the original copy from which the film was made

The whole process of cataloging microfilms is simplified greatly if the films have "title strips" which give most of the details needed for the catalog cards. Classification of the films should be as simple as possible, because the films do not lend themselves to open-access use as do books.

Catalog cards for some microfilms are available cooperatively. An example of such a card follows.

FILM

Crowley, Robert, 1518?-1588.

The way to wealth, wherein is plainly taught
a most present remedy for Sedicion. Wrytten
and imprinted by Robert Crowley ... London,
1550.

Film reproduction, position 3.

Edwards brothers no. 957 (case 6, carton 34)

Short-title catalogue no. 6096.

1.Gt.Brit.—Soc.condit. I.Title.



MIU F40-66

² K. D. Metcalf, "Microphotography and bibliography," *Bibliographical Society of America, Papers*, XXXII (1938), 70.

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XVII

Organization and Administration of the Catalog Department

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I. Reasons for Organization

"The history of cataloging in the twentieth century in this country has been the story of an increasing flood of printed cards, of the rapid growth of libraries and of inordinate pressure on cataloging departments."¹ This pressure has emphasized the importance of strong administration and organization to cope with the problems involved. A catalog department is bound by the fact that its departmental organization must follow certain policies that affect the institution as a whole. These cover such matters as staff regulations, hours of work, salaries, vacations, etc. Much of the well-being of a catalog department is therefore closely linked with the effectiveness of the general library program.

After the organization has been studied from such angles, catalogers should analyze and appraise the service they are giving to readers and to the acquisition, circulation, and reference departments. There must be cooperation with all the other departments of the library.

Some of this organization must now be studied to see how the classifica-

¹ A. D. Osborn, "Cataloging costs and a changing conception of cataloging," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, V (1936), 49.

tion and cataloging service can fit into the whole library scheme and how it can be conducted so as to give the best returns. As soon as cataloging assumes such proportions as to demand the full time of one or more persons, the methods for handling the work must be seriously considered and a plan must be made to care for an ever growing organization.

We have observed that there are professional and clerical elements in the work. Such a combination of duties, radically different in type, needs careful handling. There is no very sure means of measuring the efficiency of the professional side of cataloging and classification. On the other hand, clerical details of the work with books and cards may be standardized and reduced to routine operations which may be readily appraised.

More than any other department of a library, the catalog department needs a central directing and co-ordinating influence to insure its proper progress and development. A study of the experience of many libraries will show that probably more time and money have been spent in reorganizing the records, reclassifying and recataloging the books in the collection, than on any other single item. It is economy to do a thing right the first time, and this is especially true when one is working with a catalog which becomes more complex with the addition of each new entry. The work of the cataloger never reaches finality; no catalog is final; every book has its successor. In order that the staff may develop with the institution, its members must be given ideals; they must be trained in habits of mind that will result in each piece of work naturally being planned the best way.

A new theory of cataloging was introduced when the printed cards of the Library of Congress were first sold to libraries. The printed cards gave rise to problems that were not covered by the theory of catalog entries; they were administrative questions. For forty years and more the catalogers in small and large libraries should have been gradually working towards the more effective use of all the aids the Library of Congress offers.

The executive and the cataloger must work together. It is the cataloger who presents the problems, and it is the executive working with the advice of the cataloger who must find the solutions to the problems.

II. Work of a Catalog Department

The main duties involved in cataloging and classifying books have been outlined in the preceding chapters, but in actual practice libraries differ greatly both in the quantity and kind of work assigned to catalogers or included in the catalog department program. Duties should be clear cut and as definite as possible, for the department is one in which successful administration depends on careful planning. It is impossible to prepare a schedule of operations for this department without a knowledge of what is to be included in its program of work.

Since no two libraries are exactly alike, many variations in organization are found. General factors that determine cataloging procedures include:

1. Library objectives
2. The size of the library
3. The size of the budget
4. The degree of specialization throughout the library system
5. The size of the area served
6. The character of the clientele
7. The extent of participation in cooperative undertakings with other libraries

There are two generally accepted patterns for the organization of the work in a catalog department. Only a brief outline of the two is given here. According to one of these plans, all the work of classifying, assigning subject headings, and descriptive cataloging is done by the one individual. As books are received, they are arranged by subject and cataloged by assistants who have specialized in particular subject fields. According to the other plan, one assistant is responsible for the classification and subject headings while another is responsible for the descriptive cataloging. The first method is commonly followed in college and university libraries, the second in public libraries. Some libraries have combined the two plans, while many variations of all kinds are to be found in the organization of catalog departments.

III. General Policies

In planning his schedule of work, the librarian delegates certain duties to each department. It is incumbent on the head of the department to carry on the work in accordance with the general design and, in addition, to bring to it a knowledge of the technique of the special field. By constant and careful study of the whole library and of that part in which his interest is centered, the department head should take his place not only as an assistant who is to carry out the directions of a superior, but also as an expert bringing to the organization suggestions and proposals for bettering the work. He must be on the alert to embrace every opportunity both to meet current situations and to prepare himself to assume new responsibilities.

The chief librarian is usually willing to leave the details to the expert who has specialized in a particular field if he can be sure that the general policies of administration will not be overshadowed by details. Therefore, the head of the catalog department should not fail to discuss interdepartmental relations with his chief. He should not, however, bring into such conferences the detailed questions of cataloging which may have no real bearing on the administrative question. Cataloging, like other types of work, has fundamental principles that must be followed. The cataloger

knows that he must work in accordance with these principles and that the best way to disarm criticism is to show their effectiveness when put into practice.

Complaints will come to a catalog department, of course, for it touches every other department closely and follows methods that generally are not well understood either by staff or by readers. Naturally when readers are waiting for books that are not yet ready for circulation, the catalog department is apparently at fault. Therefore, definite reasons for delay or apparent laxity should be given, but in no case should a recital of detailed difficulties which beset the department be poured into the ears of the uninterested listener. Catalogers must by no means be obsequious or willing to accept humbly every complaint that comes. Such an attitude is fatal to any organization. They must accept reasonable criticism but should be prepared to defend their methods and procedure.

The catalog must reflect the best judgment of every member of the staff; therefore suggestions for its improvement should always be heeded. The use to be made of such suggestions or observations must be left to the head of the catalog department, but he must be wise enough to realize that excellent suggestions can come from both staff and readers, that frequently some suggestions can come only from them, and that the catalog he is making is not *his* tool nor that of the department but that it belongs to the library staff and the library patrons.

The head of the catalog department should know the needs of each department in the library. Certain policies must be decided in conference with the librarian and the department heads since there are cases in which the directing force must consider the share the catalog department is to take in carrying out undertakings affecting the policies of the whole library. For example, if a new branch or departmental library is contemplated, it is the catalog department which must get the books ready for the shelves. It must therefore know the approximate size of the proposed collection, the date of opening, and what foreign-language books are likely to be included. If the librarian has purchased a special collection of books, the head cataloger can make preliminary arrangements to catalog them, provided he has been informed in advance of the purchase.

It is advantageous for the head of the department to take part in staff meetings at which the selection of books is under discussion. If, for example, at one of these meetings the technology department gives notice that it is purchasing an expensive book because it contains a good list of patents, the head cataloger should note the fact so that the catalog may call attention to the list. Again, if readers are demanding certain books in process, the cataloger can learn of this from members of the staff and see that these take precedence over others that are in less demand. From the

clubs are studying, why the schools are duplicating certain titles, as well as information vital to his own work. This contact helps the cataloger to see his work from the point of view of the staff and makes him alert to opportunities.

The statistics to be kept by the catalog department should be decided upon by the librarian and the head of the department at the beginning of the fiscal year for it is impossible to go back and compile figures after the books and cards have left the department. Such a decision will eliminate any possible embarrassment which might arise later in the year if figures called for have not been kept.

IV. Interdepartmental Relations

1. **General.**—Cordial relations between all departments of the library are necessary for effective work. Reciprocity tends to improve the service and to infuse into the staff a feeling of unanimity of purpose.

In some libraries, departments have a regular schedule for the exchange of assistants. Such interchange is nearly always agreeable to the cataloging assistants because it gives them experience in different branches of the work and may bring them into contact with the public. The advantages to the departments concerned may be unequal. The assistant who comes to the catalog department often finds it difficult to pick up a piece of detailed work when he is not familiar with the rest of the technique of the department, and the records sometimes suffer through falling into the hands of such a person. In theory the plan is good and should receive consideration.

Catalogers are usually better prepared by the nature of their work to assist in the reference department than in any other. In return, they are able to bring back to their cataloging duties valuable observations about the use of the catalog which will ultimately help them to make the reference work more effective.

Much time is given to locating books in process in the catalog department. Although an effort is made to keep books in order while they are being worked with, it is not always possible to locate an individual book quickly. The assistants in the catalog department must always be ready to help in finding books in process.

2. Relations with particular departments—

The acquisition department. In some libraries, ordering and cataloging are combined under one head, but most libraries divide the work into two departments. Since the catalog department receives most of its material from the acquisition department, there must be a close connection between the two. The acquisition department depends upon the catalog for information about duplicates, replacements, differences in editions, and similar questions, and the catalog department in turn looks to the

acquisition department to transmit information that will facilitate the work of the catalogers.

The records that each maintains must be studied by both departments in order to prevent duplication of work and to use what has already been prepared by either one. For example, the order cards passed on to the catalog department furnish a list of books in process which is equally valuable to the two departments and to the public departments as well. It is important for the acquisition and catalog departments to be ready to share serial records since these are so expensive to maintain. Other points of contact are searching, gift and exchange work, and the disposal of duplicates.

The reference department.—It is to the reference department that the catalogers should turn for their greatest help, for the two departments are doing work similar in character and equal in importance. Those who prepare the catalog should study the needs of the reference assistants and should discuss with them the effectiveness of the card catalog. They must often ask the reference librarian to suggest reference books to aid in research and must get his point of view about subject headings, references, guide cards, filing, and analytical entries. The catalog is put to its severest test by the reference department. If it does not answer many of the questions which come to the reference desk, it is faulty and should be revised.

If the reference librarian can give time to reading over the catalog cards just before they are filed in the catalog, he will find it an excellent way to familiarize himself with new headings, references, analytics, and other entries. This has been tried in some libraries to the great advantage of both departments.

The circulation department.—The catalog department can also work in close conjunction with the circulation department. All information gathered by the assistants at the circulation desk which will lead to bettering the catalog should receive consideration by the catalog department. On the other hand, any information about the use of the catalog which the circulation assistants can get from the catalogers should be welcomed.

One catalog department keeps a blank book at the circulation and reference desks in the central library and at each branch. In it the assistants make notes of questions that could not be answered by the catalog. This book is returned to the catalog department at the end of each week; the questions are taken up one by one and an answer is written opposite each question. The following questions and answers are taken from such a book:

Q. Cards under Milton are soiled. May we have new ones?

A. Cards will be ordered at once.

Q. No card in the catalog shows that we have *volume 4* of the Harvard 47 workshop plays.

A. Official card is already corrected and printed cards are ordered. Will add in pencil to your cards.

Q. Hammond's Atlas is not listed under *Geography*.

A. The two atlases by Hammond are listed under the headings *Commercial geography* and *Maps—Collections*. Geography has not been used in this sense. A "see also" reference refers to these headings.

These questions give the cataloger an opportunity to know how the public is using the catalog and the answers show the assistants at the desks what the catalog can and cannot do.

Special departments.—Catalogers should not fail to take advantage of the knowledge of the experts in charge of special departments, such as technology, medicine, art, and music. Advice from them as to classification and subject headings will often help to settle a doubtful point.

Some specialists, such as children's librarians, prefer to assign subject headings and class numbers to books for their own department. If such cooperation is to be successful, the cataloger should have final authority so that uniformity and consistency will be preserved in the catalog.

Catalogers can frequently be of service to special departments by calling to their attention new books or parts of books which will not be located in their special division but which will nevertheless be of interest to them. A form card may be used for that purpose.

V. Personnel.

1. **Some definitions.**—The following are definitions of positions in the catalog department, as formulated by the American Library Association for use in its "Library statistical report for institutions of higher education."

Department head.—A department head is a member of the professional staff directly responsible to the chief librarian or director, associate or assistant chief librarian, and in charge of a major division of the library organization which has its own staff and definite responsibilities. The department head must meet the qualifications of a professional assistant.

Professional assistant.—A professional assistant is a member of the professional staff performing work of a professional grade which requires training and skill in the theoretical or scientific parts of library work as distinct from its merely mechanical parts.

Subprofessional assistant.—A subprofessional assistant is a person who performs, under the immediate supervision of professional staff members, work largely concerned with the higher routine processes which are peculiar to library work and which require some knowledge of library procedure. . . . A subprofessional assistant should have had at least brief elementary training in library work as taught in a library summer session or a training class.

Clerical assistant.—A clerical assistant is a person who performs, under immediate supervision, processes which may require specialized

speed, accuracy, and clerical ability of a high order but do not require knowledge of the theoretical or scientific aspects of library work. High school graduation is presupposed for this classification.

2. Head of the catalog department.—The cataloger's responsibility increases with the growth of a library, and librarians have become aware of the fact that the cataloging process involves questions of administration as well as of technique. In large catalog departments there must be an executive head who is capable of directing the technical processes, organizing the work, and managing the staff. The leader of such a department must be an individual on whom the librarian can depend to introduce an enlightened policy.

The need for developing head catalogers of this caliber is shown by the following statement, which should serve as a challenge to catalogers to look at their work from an administrative as well as a technical angle:

Librarians have found it, for one reason or another, very difficult to locate a department chief with adequate technical knowledge and ability who can also take responsibility satisfactorily for the administration of a staff of from fifty to a hundred . . . and who can insure a smooth-running machine. The librarians have watched cataloging costs mount. They do not themselves have an intimate enough knowledge of the problems involved to make technical decisions, and thus have been convinced of just one thing: That the cost of cataloging is the greatest single problem they have to face.²

3. Professional and clerical assistants.—It has been observed that the duties of the catalog department may be divided between professional and clerical assistants. The proportion in the two groups varies with the quality of cataloging, and the size, type, and organization of the library.

The ratio in a large public library is about one professional to two clerical assistants if Library of Congress cards are used and if mechanical processes are used for duplicating records. This means that one cataloger can plan enough work to keep two clerical assistants busy. The revision of this work may be divided between professional and routine revisers. This method relieves the professional cataloger of unnecessary routine and enables him to devote his time to work involving judgment, responsibility, and decision.

Professional and clerical assistants are needed in both public and university libraries since modern methods of cataloging provide work for both types of assistants. In college and university libraries some of the clerical work can be carried by student assistants. These assistants frequently bring to the department not only scholarship but also the language equipment so much needed in cataloging. After some experience they become pro-

² K. D. Metcalf, "Departmental organization in libraries." In C. B. Joeckel, ed. *Current issues in library administration* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago pr., 1939), p.104.

ficient in their special branch of the work and may be more useful to the library than other assistants who are professionally trained but who are lacking in experience.

Professional assistants for classifying and cataloging should be chosen only from among those with college education (or its equivalent), formal library training, and linguistic equipment. The languages most needed are French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish. Special collections of books for foreign readers in the minor languages may be cataloged by a part-time assistant since these books are relatively few in number. Staff members in these positions are the "professional assistants," or "professional catalogers" or "classifiers."

The subprofessional assistants are college trained but have not had formal training in library science. Clerical assistants may be divided into two groups: those doing preliminary searching, revision of records, typing, filing, and other supervised tasks, and those doing page work, which includes moving books, sorting cards, bringing books from the stacks, and similar duties. Those in the first group should have had a high school education or a business school training, while those in the second group need grammar school training only.

After a short period of training, clerical assistants can do preliminary searching for the catalogers. They can gather information from specified reference books, check the Library of Congress depository catalog, and compare entries already in the library catalog.

In some libraries, typists make the first card as copy for the cataloger. This relieves the cataloger of the clerical task of copying title pages and leaves him free to concentrate on the professional sides of the work, such as assigning subject headings and deciding what added entries are needed.

In making use of clerical help, it should be remembered that

Clerical assistants are characterized by the same human qualities and ambitions as professional assistants and should be permitted by a graded service the same possibilities of advancement within their group as professionals. By using the two schemes we should merely be fitting a job to individuals according to their training, ability and the demands of the situation.³

4. Staff supervision.—The entire professional, subprofessional, and clerical staff is directly responsible to the head of the department who, with the first assistant, outlines the duties of each assistant. There is little need for strict supervision of professional workers. On the other hand, clerical assistants need supervision or they may harm the morale of the whole department. They should be under the control of a person who is qualified by training, experience, and temperament to direct people with

³ A. J. Rymer, "An analysis of work in a small public library," *Wilson Bulletin*, XIII (February 1939), 393.

a minimum of friction. In fact, one of the chief qualifications for such a position is the ability to get work done. This does not mean driving employees to unusual efforts or pushing work through in record time at the expense of other equally important duties. It means the ability to judge the comparative importance of the various kinds of work to be done and to get the work performed in the order of its importance. A supervisor's ability to plan and attend to the execution of clerical tasks has the following advantages: (1) a mobile force, capable of handling large quantities of books and cards, is developed; (2) economical work results from the careful supervision; and (3) the clerical functions are separated from the professional activities of the department.

5. Staff manuals.—Catalog departments should keep a record on cards or in a loose-leaf book of all decisions made in the course of the work. There are so many details in the operation of any catalog department that new assistants benefit by finding the processes and rulings written up. Such a record should describe the full routine for handling books, classifying, assigning book numbers and subject headings, maintaining shelf lists and catalogs, obtaining and preparing cards for use, filing, etc.

Several such staff manuals have been printed or mimeographed. The one for the Reference Department of the New York Public Library⁴ shows the detailed organization of the catalog department of a large reference library. The Enoch Pratt *Catalog department manual*⁵ describes the work in a public library with its system of branches. The cataloging department of the University of Montana Library⁶ has compiled a staff manual that is a good model for the college library to follow.

VI. Planning and Assigning the Work

1. System of classification to be adopted.—The librarian and the head of the catalog department should determine the best classification scheme for a library on the basis of (a) the use to be made of the books, (b) the clientele to be served, and (c) whether there is to be open or closed access. The use of one of the standard systems becomes increasingly desirable as cooperation between libraries grows and as staff members and readers move from one library to another. Public libraries are now benefiting from the training which children have been given in the use of school libraries. County and regional libraries benefit if all the collections within a given area are classified by the same system. Professors and students who go from one college or university to another can use the libraries to better ad-

⁴ New York. Public Library. *Manual of the Preparation & Acquisition divisions in the New York Public Library* (N. Y., 1931), 98p.

⁵ Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore. Catalog Department. *Catalog department manual* . . . prepared by Lucile M. Morsch (Baltimore, 1940), 160p

⁶ Montana. University. Library. *Catalog division manual* . . . prepared by Ruby Robert and Lucile Speer (Missoula, Mont., 1929), 55 numb. 1

vantage if they are not obliged to learn a new system of classification in each institution.

2. Types and kinds of catalogs.—The two most common types of catalog are the dictionary and the classified, and a choice will be made between these two, unless a very special kind of library is to be cataloged. We have already observed that the classified catalog is less frequently used than the dictionary type, a fact that leads one to believe that only a special library would want to adopt that form.

Official catalog.—The primary purpose of the official catalog is to answer the questions of catalogers and classifiers, but it is so frequently used by assistants from other departments, especially from the acquisition department, that their needs must also be given careful consideration. An official catalog is seldom necessary in a library that has fewer than thirty thousand volumes. Such a catalog may be limited to author and added entries and to cross references. Subject entries may generally be excluded unless it is desirable to have subject cards for important biographies and bibliographies of individuals. Authority cards may be filed in this catalog if desired. A few large libraries have found a combined official catalog and L. C. depository catalog a very convenient arrangement.

Official cards should be stamped "Official catalog" to prevent confusion with other cards when they are out of the catalog. Since the official catalog is not used by the public, it may contain notes and other information which should not go into a public file. Books whose use is to be restricted may at times be listed in the official catalog only.

Centralized cataloging within a library system.—The question of centralized cataloging is of great importance to libraries that have branches, departmental libraries, and other agencies. Whatever plan is adopted for any library system, it is at least very desirable to have centralized records. Centralized cataloging benefits by having a group of trained assistants who have at hand the best reference books, adequate supplies, and the means of ordering or duplicating quantities of cards. Under this system, the central or union catalog shows the resources of the entire collection, while each agency may be provided with its own catalog which will be of approved quality. Public and county libraries gain by having centralized cataloging. In university libraries the issue is not at all clear cut; there are advantages both ways.

Catalogs for special collections and outside agencies.—It is customary to furnish catalogs and shelf lists for various parts of a library system except extension agencies. In branches and departmental libraries dictionary catalogs are usually provided; in smaller agencies an author catalog is sufficient.

Special catalogs for children and young people.—Many libraries maintain a separate catalog for young people. This is necessary if a library

wishes to simplify its catalog for children. It is undesirable to mix adult and juvenile subject headings if a catalog is to prove satisfactory to the two classes of readers. When the juvenile dictionary catalog is separate, subject headings can be phrased more simply, more analytical entries can be made, references can be introduced that do not conflict with those for adult books, and the catalog as a whole can be made more easily intelligible to children. This separation should apply to branches as well as to the central catalogs.

Suggested catalogs.—The duplication of catalogs necessarily depends upon the size and organization of the library, but a fairly complete list is given here to aid the librarian who is planning rather full cataloging. No one should consider making all these catalogs for the one library unless there is a proved need, a sizable budget, and a large staff.

1. Official catalog
2. Dictionary catalog of all books in the system
3. Dictionary catalog of circulating books
4. Dictionary catalog of books in the reference collection
5. Dictionary catalog for each branch of its own books
6. Dictionary catalog of all juvenile books in the system
7. Dictionary catalog of juvenile books in each branch, kept at the branch
8. Dictionary catalog of each special collection, as Technology, Music, Art, etc.
9. Classed catalog (one card per title only) for books in foreign languages, as French, Italian, Spanish, etc., arranged by broad classes, as Science, History, Literature, etc.
10. Classed catalogs, for the whole collection, or for special collections, made by duplicating cards and filing by call number in shelf list order

Union catalogs.—This phrase may be used for catalogs which list all the books in a library system or for catalogs which show what books are to be found in other libraries in the vicinity or throughout the country. In the latter sense, the Library of Congress depository set may provide the basis for the union catalog; to it may be added such cards as are available from reference and university libraries and others. Such an accumulation of cards is invaluable for the cataloger as well as for the reference librarian. Only the National Library, large reference libraries, and bibliographical centers are justified in maintaining such a big auxiliary catalog.

Simplified and selective cataloging.—This subject is one which should be considered by every cataloger in charge of a rapidly growing collection. Simplified entries can be made economically in many libraries for fiction, pamphlets, analytics, etc. If a library makes use of "selective cataloging" it will choose the appropriate method to be followed in dealing with various types of material. Commonly the appropriate method will be simplified cataloging, in which case the two terms mean the same. In selective cataloging, an attempt is made to treat material according to the needs of

various classes of readers. Thus in a university library different subject heading policies might be in effect for books that the faculty and research workers will use primarily and for books that undergraduates will use primarily. In the first case, fewer subject headings might be used because these readers may use the stacks freely; in the second case, more subject headings might be used, on the ground that undergraduates must consult the catalog at all times instead of being able to use the stacks.

3. Order of duties—

Separation of classification and cataloging.—The first question which always confronts the head of the catalog department of a large library is the advisability of separating the two major duties: classification and cataloging. The difficulty of arriving at a satisfactory solution is due to the effect each plan has both on the work and on the worker. There is considerable economy if one group classifies and assigns subject headings while a second group does the descriptive cataloging. On the other hand, with difficult books economy comes from having all three functions brought together. It does not seem economical to have a classifier take care of the classification and a cataloger assign the subject headings and do the descriptive cataloging, for then two people must analyze the book from the subject point of view. When the work is divided, the catalogers sometimes feel that much of the interest has been removed from their work. When each cataloger does his own classification, subject heading, and descriptive cataloging, the work is usually organized on a subject or language basis, with specialists in given fields working independently or in groups. In such a situation there is danger that the catalogers will become narrow specialists. Specialization is good, but there are so many overlapping fields of interest in modern knowledge that it is often better to have catalogers with good, general experience who will develop some special subject interest as well. A matter of more serious concern is that when the books are distributed to the catalogers on a subject or language basis, the head of the catalog department has little if any control over the flow of work. One cataloger may have too much to do while another has too little, but it may be hard to make the necessary adjustments by reason of the different specialization each cataloger has developed.

In a public library both methods are sometimes used together. The circulating books may be handled by catalogers who do all the work of classifying, assigning subject headings, and descriptive cataloging. The reference books and serials (which are generally more difficult and more often call for a knowledge of languages) may have one person to classify them and assign the subject headings and another person to do the descriptive cataloging.

It is probable that greater output can be attained by separating classification and subject heading from descriptive cataloging. This is certain

to be the case if Library of Congress cards are in general use, for they reduce the cataloging to a routine process. One or two catalogers can give directions for changes in these cards to be carried out by clerical workers, thus reducing the number of persons on the professional staff.

Very often assignments of work must be made according to other groupings. For example, all books in a certain language may be given to an assistant who is well acquainted with that language; and again, an assistant trained in children's work may catalog and classify all the juvenile books.

Schedule of duties assigned to positions.—The assignment of duties naturally depends upon the order of duties chosen for classifying and cataloging.⁷ The public library of about a hundred thousand volumes would probably assign duties somewhat as follows:

Head Cataloger

- Supervise the department generally
- Assume responsibility for all work done by the department
- Direct the classification and cataloging of difficult books
- Examine the finished work of the catalogers after it has been revised
- Present an annual report to the chief librarian

First Assistant (Cataloger)

- Assign books to catalogers
- Revise cataloging
- Catalog and classify nonfiction
- Revise filing in order to see the finished cards and to observe how the catalog is growing

Second Assistant (Clerical)

- Do preparatory work for cataloging, following directions of catalogers
- Catalog fiction
- Supervise work of clerical assistants
- File in the public catalog
- Revise typing

Third Assistant (Clerical)

- Assist first and second assistant by searching and verifying names, comparing entries in the catalog, etc.
- Record added copies and withdrawals
- Shelf list and assign Cutter numbers
- Receive and check L. C. cards

Fourth Assistant (Clerical)

- Type or duplicate cards
- Add tracing and headings to these cards
- Make corrections on L. C. cards
- Sort and arrange all cards preparatory to final filing

⁷ A more detailed statement of catalog-department duties in libraries of various kinds and sizes is given in the *Classification and pay plans* issued by the A.L.A. Board on Salaries, Staff, and Tenure.

A public library with a hundred and fifty thousand volumes would probably add one more cataloger and one more clerical assistant. A public library with a third to a half a million books would probably add in the proportion of two or three clerical assistants to each cataloger.

Revision.—The final revision of such detailed work as cataloging and classifying should be in the hands of one or two highly trained and competent people. Revisers become familiar with all phases of the work, see things in their relation one to another, and therefore are in a position to systematize and unify the output of a department. Such revision should not in any way relieve the individual cataloger from revising his own work at the time it is done.

Careful revision of cataloging is justified if it will contribute towards better service to readers and staff members but it should not be overdone. The need for revision has been very much lessened by the use of Library of Congress cards.

VII. Cataloger's Reference Library

It is desirable that a number of books on cataloging and classification should be within easy reach of the assistants in the catalog department. Such a collection would include technical works, such as codes of rules, lists of subject headings, and classification schedules; handbooks on cataloging, such as those of Susan G. Akers, W. W. Bishop, and Dorkas Fellows; handbooks on classification, such as Sayers' *Manual of classification* and Merrill's *Code for classifiers*; the pamphlets issued by the Card Division of the Library of Congress; and printed catalogs of other libraries. Style manuals, such as those issued by the University of Chicago and the H. W. Wilson Company, are useful to annotate for the guidance of the staff. Filing rules, also annotated to meet the needs of the library, should be in the collection or, better, given to each assistant.

The most needed foreign language dictionaries should be in the catalog department, but others may be examined in the reference department and so save duplication. The same is true of biographical dictionaries, though with them the catalog department may often use the next to the latest issue and thus save buying an extra copy. The most expensive books may be used in the reference room except in the case of works like the *British Museum Catalogue* which should be in the catalog room.

VIII. Reports

A written report, with a statistical appendix, should be prepared annually. Other reports may be made at regular or irregular intervals as desired. The annual report gives the head of the department an opportunity to put before the librarian problems touching the personnel, or the work which may have developed during the year. The report should contain

suggestions for the promotion of the work, for changes in methods, alterations in equipment, or requests for new furniture, shelving, or supplies. It may be the culmination of suggestions or reports made by the assistants in the department.

IX. Statistics

Statistics should be reduced to a minimum because they may become a time-consuming nuisance to catalogers. Some catalog departments keep great volumes of computations which are seldom used and which rarely pay for the time spent in their compilation. Individual catalogers are often irritated by having to keep an account of every card prepared and every book handled.

Some count should, of course, be kept of work accomplished and books handled, but only the most important and telling items need be included. The librarian and the head of the department should decide what figures are to be kept. The compilation of statistics should be left to a clerk whenever possible.

Statistical records should distinguish new titles from added copies. While this distinction is not made by all libraries, it is one of the most telling methods of presenting accurately the work done by catalogers.

The following plan for statistics is offered as adequate for showing the work of the average catalog department. No one library will probably want to keep all these separate items.

1. *Books*

a. Books added and withdrawn by classes

New titles	} A sheet for each collection if needed
Added copies	
Net gains or losses	

b. Books classified

c. Books cataloged

2. *Cards*

a. Library of Congress cards purchased

b. Catalog cards (first copies) prepared by catalogers

c. Catalog cards typed

d. Catalog cards duplicated

e. Cards filed

3. *Miscellaneous*

a. Number of subject headings assigned

b. Analyticals classified for the shelf list or the classified catalog

X. Costs and Economies

In reviewing recent activities in the field of cataloging, we note with interest that great stress has been placed on costs and economies. Attention is being focused on the cost of cataloging, and on the possible ways

of simplifying the work and planning a more economical catalog department administration

Few definite results have come from attempts to estimate the cost of cataloging. As W. W. Bishop said in his *Practical handbook of library cataloging*: "Cataloging costs can be figured in time and results but hardly in money, as not only do salaries vary but the kinds of work other than cataloging, strictly so-called, done by the various employees vary greatly in different institutions."⁸ About all that is known is that the cost of cataloging increases with the size and character of the book collection. The factors involved are the size of the collection, the degree of specialization within the collection, the organization of the service, the policies of the whole institution, the administration and organization of the catalog department, and the efficiency of the staff. This question of cost belongs ultimately to the chief librarian, but the economies should be the concern and responsibility of the head of the catalog department who should constantly study ways and means for simplifying routines and records without impairing the service.

Miss Mudge has said that "Economy in cataloging is economy that actually saves expense in money or time on the library budget as a whole, and does not merely save this expense in the catalog department to transfer it to another department or to some future time."⁹ It is, of course, important that in tackling the problem false economies be avoided. For example, some catalogers are inclined to feel that they can accomplish a saving by deleting details from Library of Congress cards; however, this is really an added cost, for something is changed which might have been allowed to remain without causing any harm. Economy results, to a considerable extent, from being able to accept what the Library of Congress has done in the way of descriptive cataloging.

When it comes to subject headings, the story is different. No library should feel that every subject heading on an L. C. card must be used. Catalogers should exercise judgment in utilizing or modifying what they find on the printed cards, and catalog departments should formulate policies determining the number of headings they can afford to make per title, and the use of subheadings.

Economies may be realized in many catalog departments if an executive assistant can be assigned to correlate the work and see that a plan is followed by which books travel as speedily as possible from one assistant to another. There is a danger that the organization of a catalog department will not be sufficiently dynamic.

⁸ W. W. Bishop, *Practical handbook of modern library cataloging* (Baltimore: W. J. Williams & Wilkins, 1924), p. 59, footnote.

⁹ I. G. Mudge, "Present day economies in cataloging as seen by the reference librarian of a large university library," *Catalogers' and Classifiers' Yearbook*, IV (1934), 9.

The following points are worthy of consideration in any attempt to achieve economical cataloging:

1. Cards can be simplified by omitting some information called for in the catalog code.
2. The effective organization of cooperative cataloging, and the fullest possible use of printed cards, are steps in the right direction.
3. The number of cards per title may often be reduced.
4. Subject headings may often be simplified or reduced in number.
5. The amount of research involved in establishing names, determining dates of publication, etc., may be curtailed very often without doing any harm to the general library program.
6. Certain records formerly deemed essential in catalog departments might be given up.
7. The amount of analyzing undertaken may be reduced.
8. Full cataloging need not be required for all types of material, e.g., older works might be given author entries only.
9. Form cards may be used to save much descriptive cataloging.
10. The full information about a book may be given on the main card only or in the central library only.
11. Pamphlets may be organized in vertical files, thus eliminating cataloging altogether unless a pamphlet is to be preserved permanently.
12. Catalogers should be relieved of functions that are clerical in nature. Clerical assistants should be used effectively.

XI. The Work and the Staff

Good work can come only from a good staff. The making of a good staff of catalogers does not stop with their appointment. Optimum production should not be expected from new assistants until they have been on the job at least six months, and a longer time must be allowed for those who take up classification or subject headings. Many discouragements face the beginner and every consideration must be allowed during this time of orientation.

One of the most urgent and important duties of the head cataloger is to study the assistants in relation to the work they perform. Catalogers, perhaps more than other library workers, need a directing force to plan their work, give them leadership, and maintain their enthusiasm for what they are doing. They may fall into ruts easily and jog along with an even tread, unmindful of their surroundings; therefore it is imperative for the success of a catalog department that this danger be constantly watched for and avoided.

If a catalog is to reflect the needs of the readers and staff, those who make it cannot afford to hold themselves aloof from the library's activities. There is the risk that catalogers may become so intent on the work of their own department that they leave themselves little or no time to observe what is going on elsewhere in the library.

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1. Mention some specific advantages to the catalog department in exchanging assistants with the reference department.
2. What would be the advantage of combining the acquisition and catalog departments under one head?
3. Explain what you understand by the professional and clerical sides of cataloging.
4. In what branch of the work of cataloging may scientific-management methods be applied?
5. Make an outline which you would follow if you were to take your first position as a reviser in a catalog department.
6. What points would you offer to the librarian who asked for some arguments in favor of using the Dewey decimal classification in a library of forty thousand volumes?
7. Mention ways in which the catalog department may be of service to other departments.
8. In your opinion should assistants at the circulation desk be required to pass an examination on the use of the catalog?

XVIII

Quarters, Equipment, and Supplies

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| I. Planning the Quarters | 2. Equipment of trays |
| 1. Space | 3. Location of the public catalog |
| 2. Location | |
| 3. Lighting | III. Catalog Cards |
| 4. Furniture | IV. Guide Cards |
| II. Catalog Cases | |
| 1. Specifications | V. Miscellaneous Equipment |

I. Planning the Quarters¹

1. **Space.**—The space allotted to catalogers may vary from a single desk or corner to a series of well-equipped rooms. In the early days neither librarians nor architects realized that adequate space was needed for cataloging. A few books were carried to a desk where they were cataloged, marked, and put back on the shelves; then a few more were put through in the same way. This was a long process and resulted in slow service. As librarians began to increase their facilities for making books accessible, catalogers had to work with greater speed; books had to be cataloged in larger quantities, and methods had to be evolved for handling them; more floor and shelf space was required, with the result that today quarters for cataloging, classifying, and preparing books for the shelves are carefully planned for the most effective service. In new buildings ample space is allowed for the storage of books while in process, for generous desk room, for moving material, for filing cabinets, and for expansion. Librarians realize that all these factors contribute to better administration and service. Mr. Bishop says that "if a library now has ten or a dozen persons employed in cataloging work, it will be well to plan for at least fifteen to twenty persons in providing space in a new building."

2. **Location.**—The catalog room should have access to as many other departments as possible. This means a central location and on the same floor as the acquisition and reference departments if this can be arranged.

¹ The author is indebted to W. W. Bishop for permission to take certain facts from his *Practical handbook of modern library cataloging* (Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, 1924).

The public catalog should be situated where it can be easily reached by the catalogers; but if an official catalog is maintained in the department, this feature is not so essential. The public catalog should be placed where readers can have ready access to it; the convenience of the cataloging staff is a secondary consideration. The cataloging room should not be a passageway, because people passing through a department where concentrated work is required disturb workers. Direct access to the stacks is desirable, and a lift should be provided for sending books to different levels of the stack room.

3. Lighting.—The lighting of these quarters is most important, for cataloging requires constant use of the eyes. Large windows, properly shaded, which can be opened easily to furnish good ventilation, should be provided, as well as a generous supply of floor plugs for desk lights. Both overhead and desk lights are necessary since books must be located on the shelves and typing and close work must be done at the desks. The catalog cases should have lights running along the top so that trays will be well illuminated when they are in use.

4. Furniture.—Shelving, desks, and chairs are the most important articles of furniture. Book shelves should be generously provided. Catalogers have too often been hampered in their work because they have been forced to move material constantly as a result of inadequate shelf space. Wall shelves as well as an arrangement of shelving to form alcoves are desirable. The alcove shelving can be lower than the wall shelves so that light will not be cut out, and it can then serve as convenient table space for handling oversize books, maps, prints, and broadsides.

Mr. Bishop has stated the norm for the amount of space a cataloger needs:

A cataloger's desk (5 x 21½ feet), chair, book-case and a truck of books with floor and aisle space for free movement will require a space of *at least* 10 feet by 6, or 60 square feet of floor. . . . A minimum of 100 square feet to a person is usually allowed in planning offices of this sort.

The equipment of the flat-top desk should include drawers for filing cards and other records. A table should be placed before the reference-book shelves, and tables for handling large books and maps should be provided unless low shelving is installed.

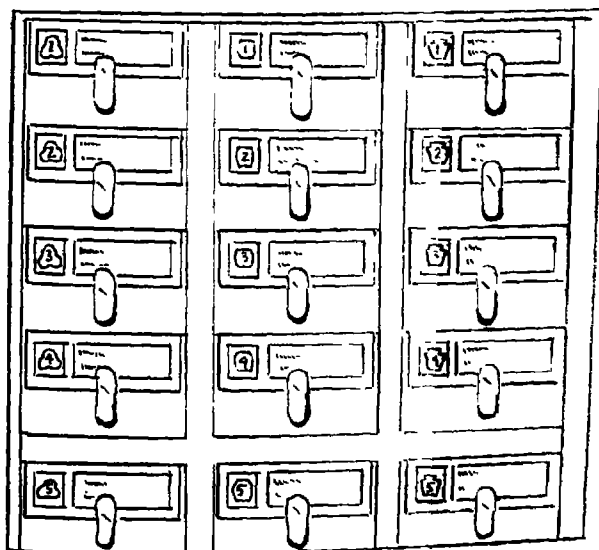
The fixed furniture should include a stationary wash-stand inclosed in a closet; the handling of dirty books and pamphlets makes this a real necessity. Lockers for supplies and a work table are best built into the room. Such a table has been planned with a flat top covered with plate glass, which is easy to clean, and an upright series of pigeonholes built at the back where the working supplies can be kept. A roll-top slide covers the pigeonholes.

II. Catalog Cases

Good catalog cases are so expensive that executives are sometimes inclined to question the necessity of having standard makes. The cataloger should take every opportunity to convince the librarian that a case of standard measurement and good material is a necessity, and that it is cheaper in the long run. This is especially important in buying or building cases for public use where the catalog trays must be able to withstand the really hard wear to which they will be subjected.

The trays too must be exact in measurements, finish, and equipment. Cards will not turn easily on the rod which holds them unless the sides of the trays are smooth and unless the width is true. Cards are cut to a standard size and a variation of a fraction of an inch in the inside measurement of a tray will cause them to stick.

The hardware used in the construction of catalog trays is expensive. If large size label holders can be afforded, the lettering on the outside of the trays can be made clear and bold. Sloping label holders can be used to advantage on the bottom rows of trays so that the labels can be read more easily.



SAMPLE OF A CATALOG CASE WITH LARGE LABEL HOLDERS

If there must be economy in catalog cases, cheaper cases can be used for the official records. Some firms furnish fairly good cases of standard size, but the trays are not equipped with angle blocks at front and back. This lack would not be serious if the trays were for official use only.

1. Specifications.—The most approved case is the unit case. This has an interchangeable top and base which allows the blocking of several cases together. By this method the capacity of the catalog can be expanded indefinitely. Each unit is made of six, eighteen, or more trays built for cards measuring 7.5 by 12.5 cm., the standard size now used by all modern libraries. The capacity of the trays depends upon the weight of card used. The capacity should be 1500 light weight, 1100 medium weight, or 900 heavy weight cards per tray. "Medium" weight is the weight of the Library of Congress printed card. The length of the tray varies, and that of course affects the capacity; the standard depth now is $17\frac{3}{8}$ inches. It is safe, however, to use these figures in estimating the space needed for storing a new catalog.

The following specifications were published by the librarian of the University of Minnesota when the new library building was under discussion, and may prove helpful to others who are faced with a similar problem:

Card Cabinets. Alternative bids will be received for cabinets in solid sections of 60 or 72-drawer units or for sectional cabinets of 12, 15, or 18-drawer units, with detachable bases and tops. The dimensions of the completed unit in either case should be approximately 60 inches high with 19-inch base, 33 inches to $42\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide and 17 inches deep. Each drawer must be equipped with follower and rod for Library of Congress cards (7.5 x 12.5 cm). All bids must state approximate working capacity of each drawer in terms of medium and heavy stock cards. (Samples of Library of Congress cards showing size and stock are enclosed.) 60-tray card cabinets for 7.5 x 12.5 cm catalog cards, or equivalent capacity.²

Small libraries can buy a single unit case and add another unit when the demand comes. Built-in cases should generally be avoided.

2. Equipment of trays—

Angle blocks.—Each standard tray has an angle block at the front to allow cards to fall into a natural position when they are being turned.

Follower blocks.—Follower blocks, of wood or steel, hold the cards in place when the tray is not full.

Rods.—A metal rod passes through the front end of the tray and through the perforation in each card. It prevents the dissarrangement of cards and also their removal by any but library assistants. Some older rods lock with a key; others screw into the front of the tray. Each tray should be cut low on the sides so that cards may be turned and read easily.

Label holders and labels.—Brass label holders on the outside of each tray are generally too small. If the case is being built to order, a label holder having an opening $3\frac{1}{8}$ x 1 inch is better than the smaller $1\frac{1}{8}$ x $\frac{1}{2}$ inch size which is often used.

²F. K. Walter, "Library furniture specifications," *Library Journal*, L (February 1925), 165.

Many libraries mark each tray with a number and add the corresponding number on the case above the tray. This is done to insure the return of the trays to the right places and thus preserve their alphabetical order. Colored markers or geometrical devices (as in the diagram on page 257) may be used for each row of trays so that trays that are out of place may be easily detected. One library has used printed celluloid buttons with numbers in different colors for the same purpose.

Labels should be marked as clearly as possible. For large labels, one of the most satisfactory methods is to use a typewriter equipped with large type. This gives a very clear label, large enough to be read at some distance. India ink is also very satisfactory and may be made to last by coating the label with shellac after the ink has thoroughly dried. A piece of cellophane slipped into the holder in front of the label is a great protection from dirt. Inclusive letters should be selected very carefully for the caption. They should cover the alphabet and no gap should be left anywhere. For example:

Cards in a tray

Babbitt—Banks
Bannister—Bazaar
Beal—Bertrand
Best plays—Bible
Bibliography—Boston

Label mark

Ba—Banks
Bann—Bazaar
Be—Bertrand
Bes—Bible
Bibli—Boston

The following extract from the annual report of the Cleveland Public Library will show how the catalog department there worked out the problem of labeling the catalog trays.

By far the largest single piece of work undertaken by this Department in preparation for the new building has been the making of the labels for all the catalogs, shelf lists, etc. During February the contents of the cases were divided by markers to show where the shifting would come, and the lettering for the drawer labels was drawn off on sheets to correspond with the divisions indicated. The Library Bureau supplied cut stock for the labels and a special heavy-faced Royal typewriter was used in printing them. The labels were then pasted on scrap sheets of heavy paper and two coats of shellac were applied—the first, turpentine shellac to set the ink and to act as a filler, and the second, alcohol shellac to give a hard coat. By using shifts to keep the typewriter going ten hours a day, and by putting several assistants from time to time on the pasting and shellacking, something over 10,000 labels were made in six weeks. According to a rough estimate the time spent on the labels amounted to about 650 hours, or the time of one assistant for fifteen and a half weeks.⁸

Labels on official files are as important as those on files for the public. A catalog poorly labeled, or not labeled at all, is indicative of shiftless work.

⁸ Cleveland Public Library. *Annual report*, LVI-LVII (1924-25), 102.

3. Location of the public catalog.—Some large libraries have a public catalog room where the cards for books belonging to the complete library system are filed. Others divide the catalogs, placing in the reference or some other room a complete catalog of the whole collection and limiting the catalog in the open shelf or circulating room to the circulating books. The juvenile catalog, in cases low enough for children to consult, should be located in the children's room.

The space available, of course, determines the arrangement of the catalog cases. The alcove plan, which relieves congestion, gives an aisle between cases where tables can be placed for holding trays when in use, and is perhaps the most compact arrangement. Each case should be plainly marked to show what letters are included in each alcove. A large lettered placard on the end of each case will direct the reader to the part of the alphabet he wants to find. Single index letters at intervals on the top of each case are also helpful in locating parts of the alphabet. White enamel letters can be seen at a distance.

Cases are usually supplied with slides to hold trays that are being consulted at the catalog. Many libraries supply cork covered tables at which readers can sit or stand while they examine a tray.

III. Catalog Cards

Library of Congress cards set satisfactory standards for card stock. Typed or multigraphed cards should be approximately of the same quality. Only good stock should be used for the public and official catalogs and for the shelf list, but a cheaper grade can be used for "in process" records, lists of subject headings, authority lists, etc. No cards should be used for ordinary purposes that are not of international size, 7.5 by 12.5 cm.

Unless the stock is good, cards that are constantly handled will fray at the edges, break at the corners, and soil easily. Cards of poor quality become rough when erasures are made and blur when ink is used on them. If a tough stock is not used, the cost of replacing worn and soiled cards will be high.

Cards must be accurately and uniformly punched so that rods can slide through them easily. Unruled cards should be used both for typing and for duplicating.

Used cards are worth saving so that their backs can be used for a variety of purposes. Care should be taken to cancel all waste stock either by lining out the entry or by clipping one corner.

IV. Guide Cards

These cards, as the name implies, serve as guides to the reader as he consults a catalog tray. Each guide card has a tab which projects above the level of the catalog cards. The tabs should be so arranged that one

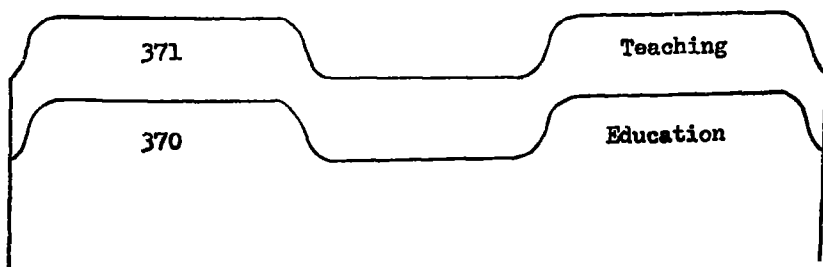
guide card does not obscure another. The index entry is typed or printed on these tabs. Various styles of tab, made of metal, cardboard, or celluloid, have been put on the market. A "tilted" or "angle" tab guide card is also available. This type is successful if used with discretion and not too extensively. It is expensive. A simple guide card of bristol board is probably as satisfactory for ordinary purposes as any of the more elaborate ones. When these guide cards have been lettered the tab should be covered with cellophane.

Printed guide cards can be used to a certain extent. They can be purchased with a variety of lettering, from a set marked simply *A* to *Z* to an elaborate set with subject headings taken from standard lists.

1. Lettering guide cards.—Guide cards should be used generously. Not more than a hundred cards should go unguided unless the file is on one topic, and even then a designation of subdivisions is helpful.

Guides can make or mar a catalog according to the intelligence used in choosing the index entries for them. It is a most difficult thing to do well, and there are few rules to help the cataloger in working out the right entries. If a complete word is used, the reader usually expects to find only cards bearing that word behind the guide and, therefore, misses the cards beyond; and if letter combinations are used, some few cards are certain to be lost because all cannot be included. Probably the best method is to use both words and combinations of letters. For example, a group of cards for Tennyson should have a guide card with the name *Tennyson* on it, while other guides in the same tray might read as follows: *Tent, Ter, Tes, Tex*, etc.

As cards are filed in the catalog, the filer should pay attention to the guides. New entries will make some guides obsolete, while new guides will be required to care for a new group of subjects.



2. Guides for the shelf list and the classified catalog.—Class numbers should be written on the guide cards for the shelf list and the classified catalog since these determine the arrangement of the cards. To make these files more useful a double indexing method may be used employing guide cards with two tabs each. The class numbers can go on the left hand tabs,

while the names of the subjects they represent can go on the right hand tabs.

Colored guide cards may be used for the subdivisions of subjects. They are also useful in official files to call the attention of assistants to special rulings. For example, they may be used in the shelf list to convey information about special methods for assigning book numbers.

3. Information guide cards.—A standard guide card may be used to explain the use of the catalog. The caption on the tab reads: "How to use this catalog." Below are printed concise directions for finding authors, titles, and subjects in the catalog. By filing one of these guides in each tray, the rules are always before the user of the catalog. It may be placed at the beginning or end of the tray or be inserted in the middle. These cards may be purchased from a library-supply house or may be typed or multigraphed by the local library.

4. Reference guides.—The reference guide is used to call attention to the vertical file, picture file, trade catalogs, lantern slides, etc. The trade name for them is "collateral reference guide."

V. Miscellaneous Equipment

1. Book trucks.—Catalogers should have an adequate supply of book trucks. These should be well built, quiet, and properly balanced. Book trucks are provided to move material from one place to another. They should not be allowed to stand by a cataloger's desk to provide extra shelf space.

2. Electric eraser.—A catalog department should have an electric eraser if many changes have to be made on catalog cards.

3. Filing chair.—In some libraries a special filing chair is provided for the filers. Continuous filing may become fatiguing, and any convenience that will allow assistants to work in comfort should be adopted. A filing chair is a chair mounted on a light platform, the platform being on wheels. A small table is usually mounted on the platform also. While still seated, the filer can easily move the chair along by pushing against the catalog case.

4. Stools.—Light stools should be available for those who need to work at the card catalog for more than a brief interval.

5. Rubber stamps.—Rubber stamps save time and effort, and can be used by clerical assistants, thus saving revision.

6. Desk and other supplies.—Catalogers' desks should be supplied with the cards, printed forms, rubber stamps, etc., which the department uses.

Steel erasers, white ink, shellac, manila rope, and tape are some of the regular supplies needed in a catalog department. An electric stylus for lettering the books has been used with success in many libraries. The

catalog department should keep on file the latest catalogs of library supply houses.

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Note: See also references at the end of Chapter XVI.

Some Practical Questions

1. What size catalog case would you need to store a catalog of ten thousand L. C. cards?
2. What arguments would you use in asking for a standard, well-built catalog case for the public catalog?

APPENDIX ONE

How to Compute the Cost of Classifying and Cataloging Twenty Thousand Volumes

It is assumed that a collection is being prepared for a new public library not yet opened. The assistants have no other duties except those implied here. It will be noted from the title of this Appendix that the only purpose is to show *how* costs may be computed. Some of the figures used are rough estimates only.

In twenty thousand volumes we shall assume that there are 14,300 titles. Of these, 25% are fiction and 75% nonfiction. Library of Congress cards are not available for 5% of the titles; therefore, local unit cards must be made for them. Reference cards are required for 7% of all the titles.

Three cards are allowed for each fiction title, including one card for the shelf list. Four cards are allowed for each nonfiction title, including one card for the shelf list.

I. NUMBER AND COST OF CARDS AND GUIDES

<i>Kinds of Cards</i>	<i>Total Number</i>	<i>Cost</i>	<i>Total Cost</i>
(a) <i>Local unit cards</i>			
Typed catalog cards (no L. C. cards available)			
5% of 14,300 = 715 titles requiring typed cards			
25% fiction 179 x 3 537	2,681		
75% nonfiction 536 x 4 2144			
Reference cards			
7% of 14,300	1,001	4000 @ \$4.00 per M (allows for 318 waste cards)	\$16.00
(b) <i>L. C. cards</i> 13,585 available			
25% fiction 3,396 x 3 10,188	50,944	13,585 first cards @ 2.5c \$339.625	
75% non-fiction 10,189 x 4 40,756		3,396 x 2 = 6,792 fiction second cards	
		10,189 x 3 = 30,567 non-fiction second cards	
		37,359	
	54,626		
	Total cards in catalog	Total second cards @ 1.5c \$560.385	900.01
(c) <i>Guide cards</i>			
546 guide cards (counting one guide for each hundred catalog cards)		\$7.75 per M	7.75
			<u>\$923.76</u>

II. CAPACITY AND COST OF CATALOG CASES

List Price of Cases ¹	Capacity	Number Required		Total Cost	
		Catalog	Shelf List	Catalog	Shelf List
		40,729 cards to be filed (incl. 1,001 ref. cards and 403 guides)	14,443 cards to be filed (incl. 143 guides)		
1 15-tray unit \$49.75 L. B. #93515	18,750 cards	3 (capacity 56,250)	1	\$149.25	\$49.75
1 top \$7.25 L. B. #90715		1	1	7.25	7.25
1 base (26 in.) \$15.50 L. B. #90895		1	1	15.50	15.50
1 sliding reference shelf \$11.00 L. B. #9855		1		11.00	
<i>Note.</i> —Unit cases of 15 trays each are placed one on top of another so that only one top, one base, and one sliding shelf are needed.				\$183.50	\$72.50
				Total \$256.00	

¹Prices and numbers refer to the Library Bureau's 1941 catalog of library supplies.

III. SALARIES AND TIME²

Worked out by time and duties

Computation based on 42 hours per week; 4 weeks per month

Staff	Per Hour	Per Day	Per Week (6 da.)	Per Month (26 da.)	Time Required	Salary per mo.	Total Cost
1. <i>Cataloger</i>						\$150	
a) Titles classified and cataloged		35	210	840	(for 14,300 titles) 17 mo.		\$2,550.00
b) Cards filed	250				(for 54,626 cards) 218.4 hrs. or 1.3 mo.		195.00
c) L. C. cards (titles) ordered (100 titles in 3 hrs. 50 min.)	25		1,050	4,200	(for 13,585) 3.2 mo.		480.00
d) Cards revised 1.25 min. per typed card .14 min. per printed card	426				1 mo.		150.00
e) L. C. cards checked one day per month (\$5.77)					.8 mo.		120.00
					Total for cataloger 23.3 mo.		\$3,495.00
2. <i>Typist</i>						\$100	
a) Unit cards typed			1,617	6,468	(for 2,681 cards) 1.7 weeks		
b) Headings (L. C. cards)		700	4,200		(for 50,944 cards) 12.1 weeks		
c) Typing reference cards		500			(for 1,001 cards) .3 weeks		
					Total for typist or 14.1 weeks or 3.5 mo.		350.00
							\$3,845.00

²The figures given here cannot be accepted as applying to all types of cataloging. The library already functioning will at once realize that both the time and cost figures, as worked out here, are lower than these items can possibly be in a library where old and new records must be constantly correlated.

Summary of Cost

Stock for cards and guides	\$ 923.76
Catalog cases	256.00
Salaries	3,845.00
	<hr/>
	\$5,024.76
Cost per title	\$ 0.36
Cost per volume	0.251

APPENDIX TWO

Comparative Output of Cataloging in a Public and University Library

More duplicate copies of books are acquired by public than by college and university libraries. Adding extra copies thus becomes a feature of the work in the catalog department of a public library, whereas in a college or university library the emphasis is on cataloging titles new to the library. Since clerical assistants can be made responsible for most of the routine of adding second copies, the proportion of clerical to professional assistants will naturally be higher in the public-library catalog department.

The following table, made to fit libraries of a hundred thousand volumes, shows how the work may differ in the two types of catalog department.

VOLUMES	PUBLIC LIBRARY		UNIVERSITY LIBRARY	
Distribution of volumes	Central	67,000		100,000
	A branch	12,000		
	B branch	8,000		
	C branch	8,000		
	Extension work	5,000		
Added copies	60%	60,000	7%	7,000
	Central	27,000		
	Branches	33,000		
New titles	40%	40,000	93%	93,000
ANNUAL ADDITIONS				
Volumes		12,000		12,000
Added copies		7,200		840
New titles		4,800		11,160
OUTPUT OF VOLUMES				
per				
Year		12,000		12,000
Month (26 days)		1,000		1,000
Day		38.46		38.46
OUTPUT OF TITLES				
per				
Year		4,800		11,160
Month (26 days)		400		922
Day		15.39		35.46
STAFF REQUIRED				
Catalogers		2		4
Clerical assistants		2		3
Typists		1		2

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